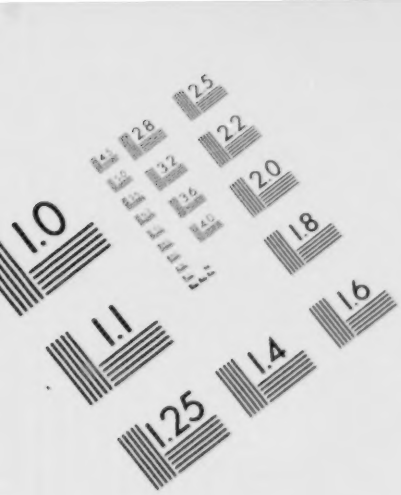

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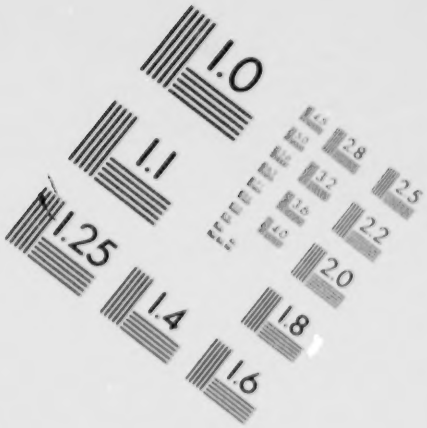

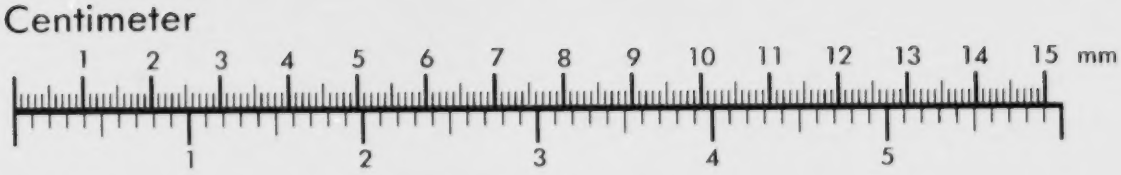

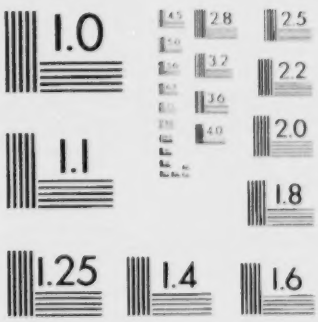

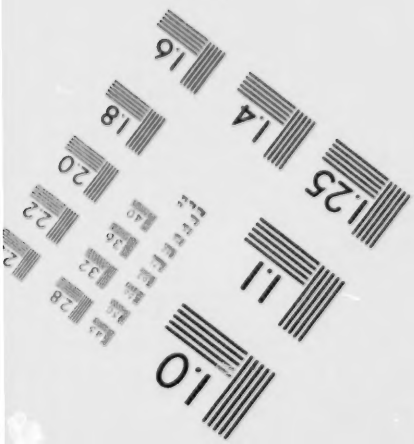

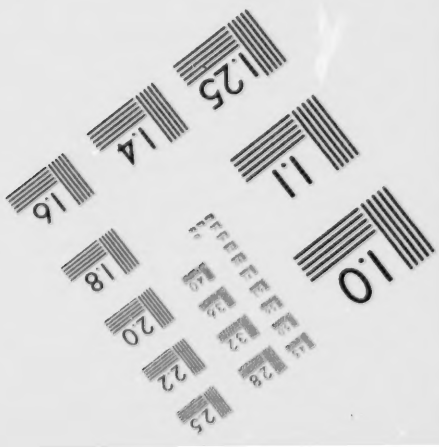

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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers addresses the personal challenges academics face in successfully responding to "the call" to academic leadership, focusing on who academic deans are, unique challenges to women deans, stress impacting deans' ability to lead, keys to successful entry into the deanship, organizational strategies for leading successfully, effective executive behaviors of deans, and critical challenges for the future. After "Foreword" (Allen D. Glenn) and "Introduction: The Call to Leadership," seven papers include: (1) "The Education Dean's Search for Balance" (Walter H. Gmelch and Mimi Wolverton); (2) "A Matter of Degree: Men and Women Deans of Education" (Mimi Wolverton); (3) "To Dean or Not to Dean: Personal and Professional Considerations" (Dee Hopkins); (4) "The Dean's Rites of Passage: Transition to Leadership" (Walter H. Gmelch); (5) "Understanding the Organization Where Deans Work: Frames and Models" (Carol Merz); (6) "Executive Behavior Patterns of Academic Deans" (Jerlando F.L. Jackson); and (7) "The Deans of the Future" (Dale G. Andersen). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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Education Leaders and the Challenges They Face

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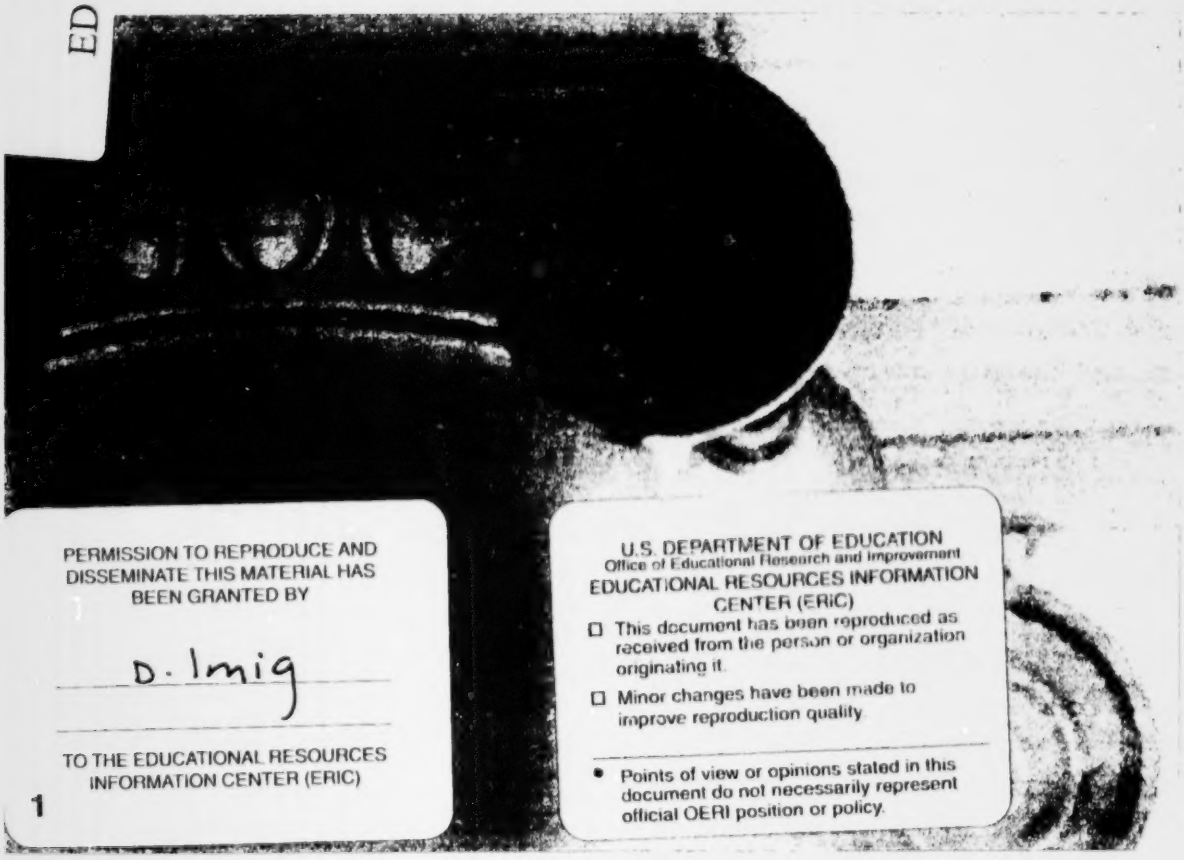

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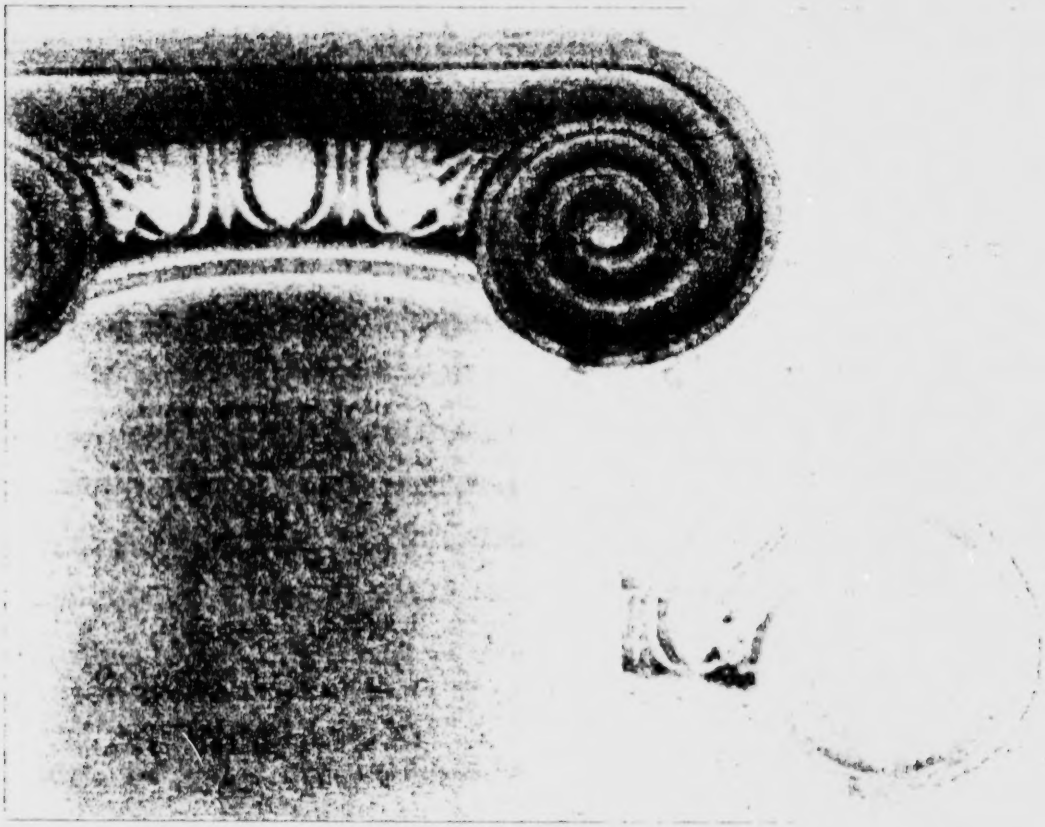

Walter H. Gmelch, Editor

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This book champions the dean's need for teamwork, patience, balance, and personal sacrifice. So does the creation of this manuscript. The first inspiration came from my fellow deans and copresenters at the 1999 AACTE Annual Meeting in a symposium, Dale Andersen, Dee Hopkins, Carol Merz, and Judy Nichols Mitchell. They have been caring colleagues and supportive friends over the years, and I thank them for the interest, expertise, and enthusiasm. The audience of fellow and "wannabe" deans—and our personal need to reflect further on the challenges of our positions—convinced us to work with AACTE on a book. Our initial presentations were augmented by Mimi Wolverton's work as codirector of the National Study of Academic Deans and Jerlando Jackson's research at Iowa State University on executive behavior of deans. Since that time, our initial group has grown into what we refer to modestly as the Renaissance Deans (including our dean colleagues Sandy Damico from University of Iowa and Richard Schwab from University of Connecticut). Thanks to you all for your continued investment of time and passion for leadership as we continue to take our message to fellow deans.

While it is customary to acknowledge those who have had direct contributions to the book, others have had immense impact on my professional development and deserve mention. I especially thank Deans Emeriti Dale Andersen and Allen Glenn, who continue to be my mentors and sponsors, and David Imig, Judy Beck, and Brinda Albert at AACTE, who contribute so significantly to the professional development of academic leaders in education.

Personally, I would like to thank George Brain, my first dean, who enticed me into higher education from the corporate world, and Gretchen Bataille, my first provost, who asked me to step in as an interim dean and provided me with the critical guidance and support I needed as a new dean. While it is important to receive support from the top, she once prophetically commented, "deans are as good as their department chairs," and in that light I would like to thank the wonderful chairs I have been blessed to work with at Washington State University—Don Reed and Darcy Miller—and at Iowa State University—Tom Andre, Dan Householder, John Schuh, Jerry Thomas, and Ann Thompson. Also, I am grateful for the insightful, sage advice and institutional perspective of my first dean's team at Iowa State—Larry Ebbers and Shirley Woods—who guided me through my first 2 years of transition

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Finally, I extend my thanks to Kristin McCabe, whose magic created this book in its final form, and to Heidi Eichorn, my assistant, whose professional expertise and organizational skills create the magic to get our work done every day.

Walter H. Gmelch
July 2002

FOREWORD

In this monograph, Walter Gmelch and his colleagues provide insights into a series of questions that deans and those considering becoming deans need to ponder.

The first half of the book paints a picture of what it means to move into the deanship. For someone considering such a move, the picture that emerges may seem stark and foreboding. Why leave the world of the tenured professor for one that appears to have so many personal and professional challenges? Don't despair; reflect on the questions raised by the authors, but don't assume that you can ease into excellence (Bateson, 1990). Becoming a successful dean does not happen by chance and good fortune. Outstanding deans work hard, just as they did while moving through the ranks of the professorship. Gmelch, Wolverton, and Hopkins describe the realities of being a leader and the transition process of moving from the role of faculty member to that of administrator.

As you read about roles, tasks, stresses, and related issues, think about what is rewarding to you personally and professionally and what gives you joy. In his book *The Courage to Teach*, Parker Palmer notes,

> In a culture that sometimes equates work with suffering, it is revolutionary to suggest that the best inward sign of vocation is deep gladness—revolutionary but true. If a work is mine to do, it will make me glad over the long haul, despite the difficult days. (1998, p. 30)

It is the ability to maintain the "gladness" of being a dean that will sustain you through the difficult times you will confront during your tenure. Effective deans enjoy their jobs—most of the time.

The final three chapters put the organizational context into perspective and describe how an effective dean operates within this context. New deans need to remember that leading an organization is about creating a "call" that others find worthy of answering. It is not so much what a dean does that counts, but what a dean helps others do that changes the institution. Leaders must "have the unique ability to help others give voice to their personal vision—and to then build a common vision based on truth, good faith, and hope" (Hunt, 1998, p. xi). No matter how hard a dean works, if the dean doesn't understand the organizational context, little long-lasting change will occur.

When faculty, staff, and students are convinced that what is being asked of them is the right thing to do, change will happen. A leader must also know the people who compose the organization and how best to support and sustain their work, offering them "excuses and permissions to do things that they want to do but cannot initiate themselves" (Palmer, 1998, p. 30).

Leading a productive school, college, or department of education has always been a challenge. Teacher education, for example, has been under constant criticism and review for the past 20 years. Deans, consequently, are often the focus of those who want change and want it now. Teaching has become a public act open to inspection by everyone interested in any aspect of what happens in PK-12 schools or colleges and universities. The future, as described in Dale Andersen's concluding chapter, will continue to bring some anticipated and many unanticipated challenges. It will not be a calm sea, but it can be an exhilarating ride. Ask those of us who served a decade or more.

Allen D. Glenn
Dean Emeritus
University of Washington

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INTRODUCTION
The Call to Leadership

The transformation from faculty to academic leadership takes time and dedication, and not all academics successfully make the complete transition to leadership. This monograph addresses the personal challenges academics face to successfully respond to "the call" to academic leadership. Deans typically come to the position without leadership training, without prior executive experience, without a clear understanding of the ambiguity and complexity of their roles, without recognition of the metamorphic changes that occur as one transforms from an academic to an administrative leader, and without an awareness of the cost to their academic and personal lives (Gmelch, 2000a).

Leadership Training

Becoming an expert takes time. Studies of experts in the corporate world who attain international levels of performance have identified a 10-year rule of preparation (Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993). In the American university, 7 years represents the threshold for faculty to attain the status of expert as recognized by tenure and promotion at the associate professor level, and another 7 years for full membership in the academy. If it takes 7 to 14 years to achieve expertise in our academic disciplines, why do we assume we can create an academic leader with a weekend seminar?

Administrative Experience

The time of amateur administration is over. Opportunities for individual skill development through training are woefully inadequate. What are universities and colleges doing to provide preparatory leadership experiences for our next generation of academic deans? Even with systematic skill development opportunities available, such as in business administration, most managers say they learned their leadership abilities from their job experiences. In fact, a poll of 1,450 managers from 12 corporations cited experience, not the classroom, as the best preparation for leadership (Ready, 1994). One should not draw the conclusion, however, that formal training and education are of limited value. Academic leadership training, in combination with experience and socialization, can heighten faculty members' appreciation for

leadership and strengthen their motivation to develop leadership capabilities.

Understanding Role Conflict and Ambiguity

Caught between conflicting interests of faculty and administration, trying to look in two directions—academic leaders often do not know which way to turn. Deans promote the university mission to faculty and, at the same time, they try to champion the values of their faculty to the university administration. In essence, they are caught in the role of Janus, the Roman god with two faces, looking in two directions at the same time. While academic leaders do not generally have to worry about being deified, they do find themselves in a leadership role that has no parallel in business or industry (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993, 1995). To balance their roles, they must learn to swivel without appearing dizzy, schizophrenic, or "two-faced." They must employ a facilitative leadership style while working with faculty in the academic core and a more traditional line-authoritative style with the administrative core.

Recognition of Metamorphic Changes

Faculty spend an average of 16 years in their discipline before venturing into academic leadership (Carroll, 1991). After all these years of socialization, how do faculty make a successful transition into academic leadership? Salient patterns characterize the metamorphosis of faculty into administrators:

- *Solitary to social*—faculty typically work alone on research, preparing for teaching and other projects, while leaders must learn to work with others.
- *Focused to fragmented*—faculty have long, uninterrupted periods for scholarly pursuits, while brevity, variety, and fragmentation characterize the leader's position.
- *Autonomy to accountability*—faculty enjoy a good deal of autonomy, while leaders must be accountable to faculty in the department, college, and central administration.
- *Manuscripts to memoranda*—faculty carefully critique and review their manuscripts, while leaders must learn the art of writing succinct, clear memos, policies, and position papers "due yesterday."
- *Private to public*—faculty may block out long periods of private time for scholarly work, while leaders have an obligation to be accessible throughout the day to the many constituencies they serve.

- *Professing to persuading*—acting in the role of expert, faculty disseminate information, while leaders profess less and build consensus more.
- *Stability to mobility*—faculty inquire and grow professionally within the stability of their discipline and circle of professional acquaintances, while leaders must be more mobile, visible, and political.
- *Client to custodian*—faculty act as clients, requesting and expecting university resources, while the leader is a custodian and dispenser of resources.
- *Austerity to prosperity*—while the difference in salary between faculty and administrator may be negligible, the new experience of having control over resources leads the academic leader to develop an illusion of considerable "prosperity" (Gmelch, 2000b; Gmelch & Seedorf, 1989).

The metamorphosis from professor to academic leader takes time and dedication from new leaders and commitment and foresight from colleges and universities.

Awareness of the Cost to Scholarship

One of the biggest dilemmas for academic leaders is trying to hold on completely to their faculty identities (Tucker & Bryan, 1988). Many academic leaders are torn between trying to teach and being a leader, conducting research and being a leader, or even trying to teach, research, *and* be an effective leader. Only geniuses can do all three, but most academic leaders try to retain their identity as scholars while serving in administration. With 16 years of socialization in their discipline before entering administration, most academic leaders feel most comfortable and competent in their scholar role. They express frustration at their inability to spend much time pursuing academic agendas. "Having insufficient time to remain current in [their] discipline" causes the greatest stress for department chairs and ranks third for deans (Gmelch & Burns, 1994). Most deans would spend more time on their own academic endeavors if they could, but find it virtually impossible because of the demands of leadership duties. If we are to build a sustained leadership capacity in our colleges and universities, we must address the issue of professional balance in the academic leader's life.

This monograph addresses several questions that shape deans' success as academic leaders:

1. Who are the education deans, where do they work, and how do they define their roles and responsibilities?
2. What unique challenges and roles do women deans experience?
3. What stresses impact deans' ability to lead, and how do they balance their personal and professional pressures?
4. What are the keys to successful entry into the deanship?
5. What organizational strategies, tactics, and models can deans use to understand how to lead successfully?
6. What are effective executive behaviors of deans, and how do they compare with executives in business and industry?
7. What critical challenges lie in the future for deans of education?

This monograph is divided into two parts. The first four chapters describe who education deans are and what unique personal and professional challenges they face. The remaining three chapters look beyond the individuals to deans' workplaces, draw comparisons to other professions, and seek to define challenges for the future.

In chapter 1, codirectors of the Center for Academic Leadership provide data from their National Study of Academic Deans as a foundation to investigate the roles, tasks, stresses, leadership styles, and balances in the deanship. In chapter 2, Mimi Wolverton takes a closer look at the unique challenges and opportunities for women deans, and she calls for universities to play an active role in screening for potential leaders and developing college deans. For chapter 3, Dee Hopkins conducted extensive interviews with male and female deans to explore their personal and professional lives, disclosing both surprises and cautions to prospective deans. Chapter 4 illuminates the "rites of passage" during the first 3 years of the deanship, detailing the socialization phases of *anticipation, encounter,* and *adaptation.*

Carol Merz's chapter takes the reader to the school of education, exploring how to lead a fairly autonomous group of faculty within the complex organization of colleges and universities. She provides several models of leadership, each with its sets of assumptions about the structure of the organization and role of the dean. In chapter 6, Jerlando Jackson explores the executive behavior of education deans. His descriptive-qualitative study discusses eight behavioral patterns and contrasts their presence in education deans with the behavior exhibited by chief executive officers in business. Finally, Dale Andersen, with his decades of successful experience as a dean and national perspective gained as former president of AACTE, discloses four "macro" changes

that have created consternation, uncertainty, and turmoil in the lives of deans. Not left to despair, Andersen leaves us with insightful thoughts on pursuing unity and balance.

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CHAPTER 1
The Education Dean's Search for Balance

by Walter H. Gmelch, Iowa State University,
and Mimi Wolverton, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

What I dream of is an art of balance, of purity and serenity devoid of troubling or depressing subject matter . . . a soothing, calming influence on the mind, something like a good armchair which provides relaxation from . . . fatigue.

—Henri Matisse

In today's world, many of us dream of balance and serenity—if not in our professions, at least in our personal lives. Academic deans are no exception.

The academic deanship is the least studied and most misunderstood position in the academy (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999). While many education scholars have written about the organization and governance of higher education, relatively little is known about the individuals who lead and support colleges. Aside from anecdotal speeches, unpublished research reports, and magazine articles, by the 1980s, the literature on the deanship consisted of only two volumes published in the mid-1960s (Dibden, 1968; Gould, 1964); a few articles on deans of colleges of education (Andersen & King, 1987; Kapel & Dejnozka, 1979), of social work (Otis & Caragonne, 1979), of law (Abramson & Moss, 1979), and of liberal arts (Scott, 1979); and Bowker's study of deans responsible for the teaching of sociology (1982). Since that time, a few studies have emerged investigating career paths and gender and ethnicity issues in the deanship (Moore, 1983) and the "leadership journeys" of education deans (Bowen, 1995).

In 1986, Dale Andersen and Joseph King conducted the only systematic study of education deans in the past 30 years, exploring their institutional and personal profiles (Anderson & King, 1987). Not only has more than a decade passed since this study, but also deans' roles, responsibilities, tenure, satisfaction, and commitment to the position have drastically changed. Historically, deans of education appear to have undergone a transformation from chief academic officer to chief executive officer, with more emphasis placed on extramural funding, personnel decision making, and alumni relations. Increasingly, the vision

of the dean as a quiet, scholarly leader has been overtaken by this image of a politically astute and economically savvy executive. Some describe the role of the dean as a *dove* of peace, intervening among warring factions causing destructive turbulence in the college; a *dragon*, driving away internal or external forces threatening the college; and a *diplomat* guiding, inspiring, and encouraging people who live and work in the college (Tucker & Bryan, 1988). No matter what the view, today's dean resembles a species with an imperiled existence. A *Fortune* magazine article declared,

> Something bad is happening to deans. Their terms in office seem to get shorter. No more serene-looking Franklin Delano Deans reigning for decades, but plenty of troubled faces whizzing by, brass nameplates revealing that one lasted three years, another four. (O'Reilly, 1994, p. 64)

What is going on? O'Reilly concludes that colleges are almost impossible to manage well and that academics who are trying to run or repair them are getting "burned out and eased out with astonishing speed."

Investigating Education Deans

This investigation of education deans in the United States explores answers to the following research questions:

1. Who are the education deans and where do they work?
2. How do they define their roles and responsibilities?
3. What unique challenges and roles do female deans experience?
4. How do deans characterize their leadership style?
5. What stresses impact deans' ability to be effective academic leaders?
6. How do deans strike a balance between scholarship and leadership and between professional and personal pressures?

This chapter is based on survey data from the Center for Academic Leadership's *National Study of Academic Deans in Higher Education.*[1] For the study, conducted between October 1996 and January 1997, a national sample of academic deans was mailed a survey (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Hermanson, 1996). To achieve a representative sample, researchers randomly selected 60 public and 60 private colleges and universities from each of three groupings by Carnegie classification: (a) Research I and II and Doctoral I and II; (b) Master's I and II; and (c) Baccalaureate I and II. At each of the resulting 360 sample institutions, the deans of the colleges of education, business, liberal arts,

and allied health professions were asked to complete the survey. The overall sample size consisted of 1,370 deans, and the study achieved a response rate of 60%. Education deans represented 29% of the return response (n=221).

The major aspects of the Dillman (1978) Total Design Method were used in the design and distribution of the survey. Research instruments used in the survey include the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Questionnaire (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970); the Dean's Leadership Inventory (Rosenbach & Saskin, 1995); three instruments developed specifically for the study: the Dean's Stress Inventory, Dean's Task Inventory, and Satisfaction With Dean's Role (Gmelch et al., 1996); and measures of demographic and contextual variables.[2]

Who Are the Education Deans?

In 1986, when Andersen and King studied deans of education, the majority were 50 years old or older, white, and male. Only 12% of the sample reported racial or ethnic minority status, and all those who did were African American. Thirty-three percent were housed in doctoral institutions, 38% headed colleges in comprehensive universities, and 27% were located at baccalaureate colleges. Sixty-four percent of the deans worked at public institutions. More than half of the deans had risen from faculty ranks, had little formal preparation as administrators, and had been "inside hires." Most had been in their position for about 5 years and planned to remain in the position for another 10 years. Asked what they would do if their tenure as dean were terminated prematurely, these deans were not all sure they would return to the classroom (Andersen & King, 1987).

Ten years later, the Center for Academic Leadership study found that little had changed among education deans. Of the responding sample, 35% were women and 15% were racial or ethnic minorities (a slight increase over the 1987 study). In addition, minority deans were more diverse, including African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and American Indian representatives.[3] African Americans still made up the largest proportion of this group—one half. Most were married (82%) (a finding that Andersen and King did not report) and on average 54 years old. Few had children living at home.[4]

Leadership Evolution

Where does the evolution toward leadership begin? In the home? At high school or college? Almost 70% of the deans cited their parents (or

guardians) as stressing high standards of excellence during their formative years. Women and minorities were significantly more likely to classify their parents in this manner than were white males.

The survey also asked deans to reflect on the degree to which they had assumed leadership roles in high school and college. The premise behind this question was that practice in young adult years prepares future leaders for the roles they may play in the academy later: Student government prepares politically savvy leaders; literary organizations fine-tune communication skills; clubs and fraternities and sororities offer arenas for honing interpersonal skills; athletics builds teamwork; and service organizations create a sense of social responsibility and servant leadership (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1. Education Dean Leadership Roles in High School and College

Activity	Percentage participated
Service organizations	54.7*
Club activities	53.1*
Student government	51.6*
Literary/news	28.5
Athletics	26.8
Fraternities and sororities	22.7

*Denotes significantly greater participation than other deans.

Over half of the education deans reported that they had taken leadership roles in service organizations, club activities, and student government. About a quarter of the education deans also had assumed leadership roles in athletics, fraternities and sororities, and literary/student newspapers. Male deans had been more active in athletics than women; this may have been because opportunities for women of their generation to participate in athletics were not as readily available as they are today. Women, however, tended to have been more active in newspapers, service organizations, and clubs—leadership venues perhaps more equitably open to them. Minority deans had assumed significantly more early leadership roles than their white counterparts.

While no single activity proved common to all deans in the study, three quarters did take a leadership role in at least one service, social, or literary organization. In fact, the education deans were significantly more likely than other academic deans surveyed to have participated in high school or college athletics, student government, and service organizations.

Career Path

The conventional pathway to becoming a dean is "professional ascension," or rising through the ranks (Morris, 1981).[5] When asked about administrative experience prior to their current deanship, 30% of respondents said they had been deans before, less than 40% had been associate deans, more than 60% had been department chairs, and 18% had administrative experience outside the academy. While it is not evident whether deans matriculate through certain administrative ranks before reaching the deanship, the position of department chair clearly seems to be the most frequent jumping-off point for the deanship. (How an academic is socialized into the deanship is discussed in chapter 4.)

When asked what their next move would be after the current deanship, respondents most frequently projected either a move up to a higher position in academic leadership or a return to faculty ranks (see Table 1.2). Another set of deans expressed no interest in moving, while an equal number thought their next move would be retirement. Only a few had a desire to move to another dean position at a similar institution or a more prestigious institution. A few saw themselves changing to a nonacademic leadership position. Again, the profile of deans seems

Table 1.2. The Dean's Next Move

Expected move	Percentage expecting as next move
Return to faculty	27
Higher leadership position	22
Not interested in moving	17
Retirement	17
Another deanship (at more prestigious institution)	8
Another deanship (at similar institution)	7
Nonacademic position	2

to have changed little since 1987: Few plan to return to teaching positions.

College of Education Characteristics

Of the education deans responding to the 1996-1997 survey, 63% were from public colleges and universities and 37% from private ones. Thirty-six percent of the deans served in research universities, 47% in comprehensive, and 17% in baccalaureate institutions. Most were located in urban areas (40%) with smaller proportions in suburban (27%) and rural (33%) settings.

On average, education deans worked with one associate dean, a couple of directors/coordinators, four clerical staff, and five department chairs; employed 62 faculty; and enrolled 634 graduate students and 1,162 undergraduates. Overall, deans in other colleges (business and liberal arts) had more personnel (eight department chairs and 95 faculty) and more undergraduates (2,355) but fewer graduate students (297).

With regard to college climate, respondents rated their colleges as good to excellent in personal relations among faculty, staff, and students and in the quality of faculty and as average in the academic ability of students. They also rated their universities as good to excellent as a place to work and regarding their relationships with senior administrators. However, education deans felt their institutions received less-than-average private funding and financial commitment to the university by the state. Salaries, racial climate, gender equity, and intellectual climate were generally deemed average.

Deans' Motives to Serve and Why They Are Chosen

One question posed in the study was particularly intriguing: What motivated these people to become deans in the first place? Almost all the education deans indicated they had a desire to contribute to and improve the college (96%) and sought the deanship for personal growth (93%). Four of five deans took the position to influence the development of faculty (79%), and half wanted to advance their administrative career (55%). Fewer sought the position for financial gain (26%) or for the power and authority of the position (15%).

Why do deans believe they were chosen for the job? The highest portion believed it was because they were best suited to facilitate change (42%), followed by sustaining the college's programs (24%), dealing with growth (15%), and managing crisis (11%). They also believed they

were selected because of their reputation, administrative experience, scholarship, political acuity, and fund-raising ability (in descending order of importance). Very few felt that their gender or ethnicity played a major role in their selection.

The Duties of the Dean

No doubt deans keep busy. Seemingly endless meetings, stacks of paperwork, constant interruptions, and fragmented encounters on a multitude of topics set a frantic pace. A 32-item Dean's Task Inventory was developed, based on earlier work on academic leaders by Smart and Elton (1976), Moses and Roe (1990), Carroll and Gmelch (1994), and Gmelch and Miskin (1993, 1995), to gauge how critical various tasks are to deans. Respondents indicated the importance they placed on each of 32 tasks. The top 10 tasks, rated as important by 80% or more of the education deans, are listed in Table 1.3. The dean's role as symbolic and cultural leader resounds in the importance they place on maintaining a conducive work climate, representing the college to the central administration, developing and initiating long-range college goals, and communicating this mission to employees and constituents. Another important role for deans is supporting the development of chairs and faculty: recruiting and selecting them, encouraging their professional development, and evaluating their performance. Nine out of ten deans

Table 1.3. Most Important Tasks for Education Deans

Task	Percentage rating as important*
Maintain conducive work climate	96.4
Foster good teaching	95.4
Represent college to administration	95.0
Recruit and select chairs and faculty	94.1
Maintain effective communication across departments	91.2
Financial planning and budget preparation	89.5
Encourage professional development of chairs, faculty, and staff	88.1
Evaluate chair and faculty performance	87.2
Communicate mission to employees and constituents	86.8
Develop long-range college goals	84.6

*Percentages reflect responses of education deans selecting Very Important (4) or Most Important (5) on a 5-point scale.

also report that it is important to foster good teaching and engage in financial planning, budget preparation, and decision making.

But deans cannot do everything—they do have only 24 hours in a day. Are all deans' duties deemed as critical as those cited above? Table 1.4 identifies tasks that 60% or fewer of the education deans rank as less important. In contrast to the leadership functions identified in Table 1.3, fewer than half the deans believe managing nonacademic staff and

Table 1.4. Least Important Tasks for Education Deans

Task	Percentage rating as important*
Manage nonacademic staff	34.6
Ensure maintenance of college records	46.3
Model scholarship by publishing and presentation	54.7
Maintain own scholarship program	54.8
Assign duties to chairs and directors	57.1
Inform college employees of university concerns	57.8
Obtain external funds	57.8
Foster alumni relations	58.9
Remain current in own discipline	59.8
Coordinate college activities with constituents	61.7

*Percentages reflect responses of education deans selecting Very Important (4) or Most Important (5) on a 5-point scale.

ensuring the maintenance of college records are of high importance. In addition to general management duties, just 6 in 10 deans also view certain coordinating tasks as less important. If time is the problem, then it is important to note that four of the remaining eight tasks deemed moderately important deal with maintaining their own scholarship. Fostering alumni relations and coordinating college activities with constituents are also in the lower third of tasks deans considered important.

So how do education deans deal with their time pressures? This study indicates that they tend to place more importance on their leadership and personnel development roles than on their own scholarship or on the management and coordinating tasks of the college.

Deans' Leadership Styles

To characterize their leadership style, deans responded to statements from the Rosenbach and Sashkin leadership inventory (1995), rating each statement with respect to their behavior from 1 (little to no correlation) to 5 (very great correlation). While all deans consistently rated 10 of these statements as more characteristic of their style than the others, significant differences in level of response appeared between education deans and deans from the other disciplines (see Table 1.5).

Table 1.5. How Education Deans Characterize Their Leadership Style

Characteristic	Percentage rating as great or very great
Keep promises	99.5*
Treat others with respect regardless of position	99.1*
Can be relied on	97.7*
Follow through on commitments	96.7
Share power and influence with others	95.0
Oriented toward action rather than status quo	94.5*
Involve others in new ideas and projects	94.5*
Act on the principle that one person can make a difference	94.3
Respect people's differences	93.9*
Encourage others to share their ideas for the future	93.0*

*Perceived significantly greater tendency to exhibit this leadership characteristic than other deans.

The Stresses and Satisfactions of Deans

Deans also were asked to indicate the degree to which each of 43 situations caused them stress. Table 1.6 identifies the top 10 stress traps experienced by deans of education. Seven of the top ten relate to time pressures. In addition, deans experience pressure from both fiscal and personnel practices.

Given the stress and pressures of their position, are deans dissatisfied with their role? Generally, no. As Table 1.7 illustrates, deans are more satisfied than dissatisfied with the clarity of their role, their control over their work environment, and their compensation. However,

Table 1.6. Top Education Dean Stressors

Stressor	Mean score*
Excessively high self-expectations	3.55
Insufficient academic time	3.50
Too many meetings	3.44
Too heavy workload	3.29
Professional and personal balance	3.24
Financial program support	3.21
Making decisions affecting others	3.14
Report and paperwork deadlines	3.09
Conflict with faculty	3.06
Activities outside regular hours	2.99

*Based on a scale from 1 (slight stress) to 5 (high stress).

fewer than half of the deans are satisfied with the pace and workload their jobs demand. Nearly 8 in 10 deans expressed overall satisfaction with their deanship, and only 2% of respondents expressed overall dissatisfaction.

Even so, what indications do we have as to their dissatisfaction with their positions? The primary dissatisfactions reported by the deans in 1970 were inadequate financial support from the university and inadequate alumni financial support. In 1979, a study of social work deans by Otis and Caragonne found that fund-raising and budget development activities were the most likely to be mentioned as sources of pressure by deans. In this study two decades later, only 16% of the education deans believed the state had a strong financial commitment to the university, with only 20% believing they had a strong private funding base.

Deans' Balancing Acts

For many deans, work becomes their entire life. One of the prices deans pay when they enter the deanship is time commitment and the pressure to find balance in their lives. The role of the dean gives an identity and self-concept that often dictates whom deans socialize with, where they live, how long they retain their position, and what lifestyle they lead. Obviously, being a dean plays an important part in their lives and provides them with pleasures as well as pressures.

Table 1.7. Education Deans' Level of Satisfaction

Job element	Percent Satisfied	Percent Neutral	Percent Dissatisfied
Clarity of role	75	18	8
Pace	47	27	26
Workload	35	27	38
Work environment	55	25	20
Compensation	56	26	19
Overall satisfaction	78	20	2

Pressures over the past two decades have begun to transform the once unquestioning academic administrator into an individual now struggling to find the balance between total academic consumption and the freedom to live a fulfilled private life. Psychologists suggest that one cannot be unhealthy or ineffective in private life and still be an effective professional. As Robert Louis Stevenson once remarked, "Perpetual devotion to what a [person] calls [his or her] business is only to be sustained by perpetual neglect of many other things."

Deans' ability to develop a balanced lifestyle depends on how well they can make trade-offs between their leadership duties and their personal interests. Only 29% of the education deans surveyed testified that the lack of balance did not cause them moderate to severe stress. What does this finding say about their ability to balance their lives effectively? What price do they pay for their venture into the deanship?

Trade-Offs: The Prices Deans Pay

The price of assuming a leadership role depends on deans' ability to manage trade-offs between professional and personal pressures. A trade-off is defined as an exchange of one interest in return for another, especially when something desirable is sacrificed (Greiff & Munther, 1980). How can deans manage their trade-offs?

Properties of Deans' Trade-Offs

1. *Trade-offs from both professional and private interests vie for the same resource—time.* Time pressures dominate the deanship—meetings, heavy workload, deadlines, after-work activities, excessive demands, and insufficient academic time head the list of top stressors (see Table 1.6). While many complain that faculty are incessantly seeking financial resources, the real limited resource for deans appears to be time:

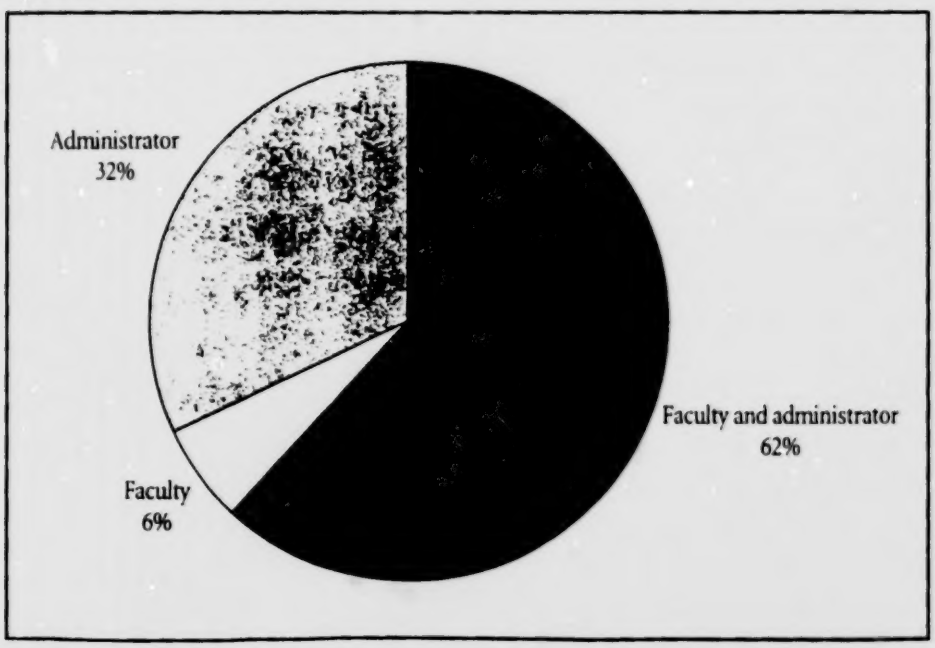
- Time is inelastic.
- Time is irreplaceable.
- Everything requires time.
- Every dean has the same amount of time.
- Everyone wants part of the dean's time.
- Most deans are ill equipped to manage time.

According to Peter Drucker (1967), the first step in time management is to take 2 or 3 days and conduct a time audit in 15-minute intervals to see how one currently spends one's time. Once one knows where the time goes, one can begin to strategically identify techniques to better use it.

2. *Trade-offs act much like a ledger; one cannot debit one side without crediting the other.* The relationship between professional and personal time resembles a "zero-sum" game—all deans have 24 hours in a day. Forty-four percent of the education deans surveyed experience excessive stress from trying to balance their personal and professional lives. If they take an extra hour for racquetball over lunch, they feel compelled to put in extra time at the office or at home.

3. *Too many trade-offs in one direction create excessive time pressures and lead to stress.* What percentage of the stress in a dean's life results from the deanship? Survey respondents indicated that 60% of the stress in their lives comes from their jobs. When asked about the nature of

Figure 1.1. Academic Deans' Perception of Primary Role

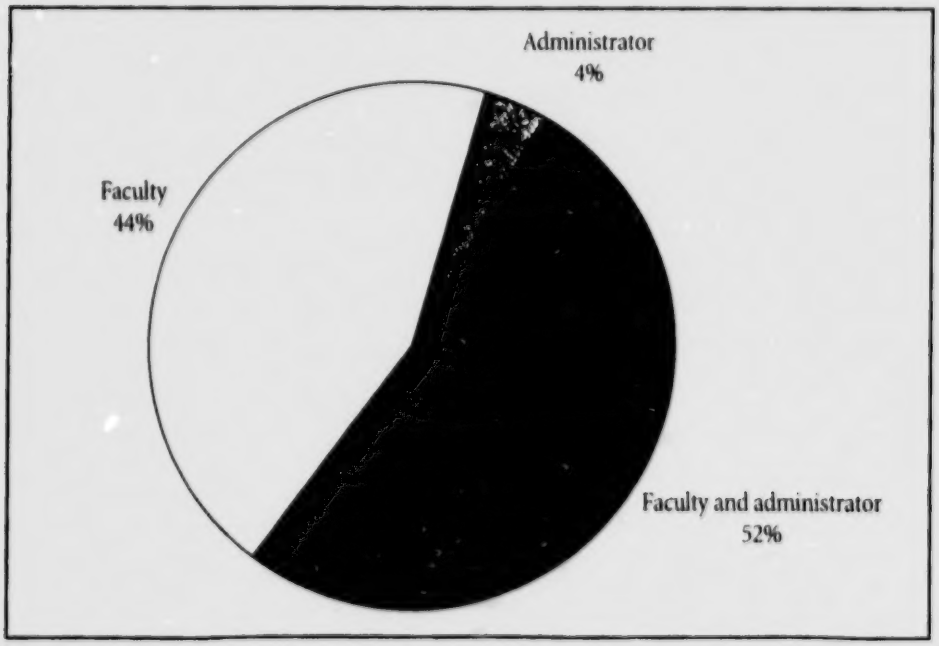


their stress, deans identified the stress traps shown in Table 1.6. Imposing high self-expectations proved to be the most predictive indicator of excessive stress for deans. Setting realistic expectations is key to a balanced deanship.

4. *Trade-offs often change with roles professors assume in the academy.* Most deans perceive themselves to be both faculty and administrator; however, a sizable portion view themselves solely as administrators, and only 6% perceive themselves as primarily faculty (see Figure 1.1). This response is in sharp contrast to recent studies of department chairs, who primarily see themselves as faculty or both faculty and administrator (see Figure 1.2). Only 4% of the chairs perceive themselves as administrators (Gmelch & Burns, 1994). Therefore, as leaders move from department to college administration, they drastically shift their self-identity to being primarily an administrator (from 4% to 44%). Whereas most department chairs (65%) return to faculty status after serving as chair (Carroll, 1991), only 27% of the deans in this study anticipate a return to faculty status. This role identity change underscores the trade-offs academics make when entering the deanship.

5. *Women deans seem to have different trade-offs than men deans.* Relatively little is known about individuals who serve as academic deans in general, and even less is know about female deans as a group. For the most part, what women specifically do, how they do it, and how their perception of both compares with their male counterparts' experiences

Figure 1.2. Department Chairs' Perception of Primary Role



has remained a mystery. However, a growing body of literature suggests that female leaders do differ from male administrators not only in their undergirding philosophy but in their approach as well. For instance, women tend to view power as a means to promote change; men view it as a way of exerting influence over people (Kelly, 1991; Chliwniak, 1997). In addition, women in higher education administration tend to be more interested in facilitating, in building relations, and in contributing to the institution and society (Schaef, 1985). In general, men seem more concerned with rules, procedural fairness, and justice, emphasizing separation, detachment, and individualism; women, in contrast, emphasize relationships, connectedness, process over events, and group membership and harmony (Gilligan, 1982; Kuk, 1990; Chliwniak, 1997).

Compared with their male counterparts, women deans are more apt to be single, have mentors, use networking to vent frustrations and to explore new ideas, and be located in urban areas. They are less likely to be interested in moving to another position at another university. While male and female deans define some of their tasks similarly, female deans rate some of these tasks as significantly more important than do male deans. For instance, women are more concerned than men about representing their college to the university, maintaining a conducive work climate, engaging in financial and long-range planning, maintaining effective communication, fostering diversity, and soliciting ideas from others. In addition, their leadership style can be characterized as cooperative and collaborative. Female deans also report more stress than their male colleagues do. These differences and others are illuminated and explored in chapter 2.

6. *Deans need to learn how to focus on their HIPOs and relegate their LOPOs.* One key to effective leadership is to reserve at least 20% of work time for focused effort on your "high payoffs" (HIPOs). High payoffs are not represented in the daily "to do" lists, as they typically are dictated by what is urgent rather than by what is most important. HIPOs represent the critical three or four "make or break" functions of a dean such as maintaining a conducive college environment, fostering good teaching, selecting quality chairs and faculty, and representing the college to the administration (see Table 1.2). In contrast, tasks that are HIPOs for nondeans seeking to secure tenure and be promoted through faculty ranks tend to become low payoff (LOPO) tasks in deans' efforts to advance the college, as deans tend to place less importance on advancing their own scholarship (see Table 1.3).

7. *Deans find they have to trade off their scholarship for duties in leadership.* Although deans may characterize scholarship as a LOPO, AACTE's Chief Executive Officer David Imig reports that many education deans are able to maintain scholarship (publish books) while serving as deans (1997). In our study, 60% of education deans rate their level of scholarly activity as the same or lower than prior to moving to the position, but they rate their scholarly productivity significantly higher than other deans and are more satisfied with their level of scholarship.

8. *Routine trade-off decisions favor the urgent over the important—unless goals are established.* Daily pressures typically result in a tyranny of the urgent. Some tasks such as managing nonacademic staff and maintaining records do not represent HIPOs for deans but often receive immediate attention due to a sense of urgency created by the work environment. For example, a call from a department for routine data needed for a 2:00 p.m. faculty meeting may take priority—but at the expense of a less urgent but possibly more important personnel matter (Gmelch, 1996). The onslaught of voice mail and electronic mail has created a sense of urgency for routine communication. Without goals or objectives guiding the dean's day, the inertia of activities dominating one side of the scale can engulf the dean's energy and time. Personal and academic goals need to be planned for the year to guide important daily activities.

The Future of the Education Dean

The Life Span of a Dean. Given the trade-offs, stressors, and levels of satisfaction with the deanship, have academics become less interested in academic leadership? In the final chapter of this book, Dale Andersen argues persuasively that we face a leadership crisis. Given the stresses and strains of the deanship, are deans serving even shorter terms? In 1979, Abramson and Moss found that 63% of the nation's law school deans served 5 years or less with an average tenure of 3 1/2 years—a sharp decline from an average tenure of 6 years in 1970. A dozen years later, Bowker (1982) found that deans served an average of just under 6 years, and 5 years later, Andersen and King (1987) reported that exactly half of all education deans had been in office for 5 years or less, and almost 20% were in their initial year as dean. A study of Australian deans also concluded that 20% were serving their first year as dean and 75% of the deans had served 5 years or less (Sarros, Gmelch, & Tanewski, 1998). In the United States, we found the average length of service as

dean was 6.6 years, and 16% of deans were in their first year of service (Gmelch & Wolverton, 1998).

Given the mixed methodologies and multiple disciplines used by these studies, the evidence is not conclusive as to whether deans are serving fewer years or not. However, all indications are that about one in five deans leaves his or her position each year, and deans are serving slightly longer than a typical 5-year term. The *Fortune* magazine assertion of the revolving deanship may not be too far from the truth. Nevertheless, the conclusion that there is no such thing as a "standardized dean" probably still holds true today.

The Case and Cure for Vertigo. Is the education dean an imperiled species, suffering from constant vertigo—an imbalance between personal and professional lives; between leadership responsibilities and academic goals? Managing time effectively (not only efficiently) provides one of the keys to a successful deanship and balanced life. No one is free from the constraints of time: No one seems to have enough, yet everyone has all there is.

While time pressures create the downside of the deanship, 95% of the education deans surveyed believe they are doing a good job, and 87% view themselves as effective leaders. If perception is reality, education colleges are in good hands. In addition, 8 of 10 deans report working in a good university and in a college with quality faculty. While the deanship may be an imperiled role in the academy, from their self-reports, education deans are satisfied and surviving their challenges.

Notes

1. The Center for Academic Leadership is a University Council for Educational Administration center codirected at Iowa State University and the University of Nevada, Las Vegas.
2. This chapter on education deans uses descriptive statistics with some comparisons between education and the other deans in the study. Other manuscripts have been published investigating the relationship among variables such as stress (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999), role conflict and ambiguity, job satisfaction and gender (Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002; Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1998a, 1999), and Australian deans (Sarros, Gmelch, & Tanewski, 1998).
3. In March 1998, approximately 200 of the 595 deans of education who had reported personal data were women (33%) and 13% were minority (AACTE Institutional Representatives Update, 1998).

4. According to earlier studies, having fewer children at home should be a significant stress reliever. In the Andersen-King study, deans who did have children at home experienced increased stress and imbalance between their personal and professional lives.
5. Moore and her colleagues (1983) found that the large majority of deans started as faculty members, and this position has constituted the principal entry portal to the dean's career trajectory. However, a strictly hierarchical, linear model leading to deanship is not clear. In education deanships compared with others, for example, deans were most likely to use the assistant dean, associate dean, or assistant to the dean position as the only one preceding a deanship. Therefore, once employed by the academy, no one leadership or administrative experience seemed to lead to the deanship. As a matter of fact, "more deans conform to variations from the 'norms' than to the 'norms' themselves" (Moore et al., 1983, p. 514).

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CHAPTER 2
A Matter of Degree: Men and Women Deans of Education

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As chapter 1 indicated, relatively little is known about the individuals who serve as academic deans in general; even less is known about how male and female deans compare. In an attempt to explore their differences more fully, this chapter examines the same group of education deans as discussed in chapter 1 (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Hermanson, 1996) but seeks to highlight the margin areas. It is at the extreme, where men and women assign variables their highest rating (5 on a 5-point scale), where subtle but significant differences appear. In other words, it is a matter of degree rather than a discrete difference that separates men from women deans. Empirically, this chapter supports some, and calls into question other, mostly qualitative findings from earlier studies. The chapter closes by suggesting implications for leadership preparation and training of deans.

A Philosophy of Leadership

Research suggests that the approaches to leadership that men and women take vary across two dimensions—their understanding of power and their ability to establish balance—and one mediating aspect, mentorship.

Power

A dean's conception of power influences how he or she relates to, communicates with, and works with other people. If women have the opportunity, they typically shun hierarchical arrangements that favor positional power. They replace them with a more networked approach in which they work from the center out. More often than not, they seek a balance of power based primarily on expertise (Kanter, 1994; Helgesen, 1995). This sharing of power stems from a desire for collective action—a working through people (Astin & Leland, 1991). In contrast, men frequently try to obtain control over a situation and the people involved in it. Power to many men is a scarce commodity (Carr-Ruffino, 1993; Chliwniak, 1997), and information one of its primary sources. For this

reason, men have difficulty sharing information; they hoard it and in doing so increase their own workload (Helgesen, 1990). Women view information as a way to empower others and readily share it and delegate the responsibility and authority to act that corresponds to possession of such information (Irwin, 1995). On the one hand, men stress independence and a certain amount of detachment. On the other, women promote relationships and collaborative dialogue (Chliwniak, 1997) that encourages constructive critique (Helgesen, 1995) as a means to arrive at consensus. They listen rather than direct and engage in a relations-based type of negotiation. Their concerns are for others and balance, not rules, standards, or an overreliance on procedures (Tannen, 1994; Irwin, 1995; Chliwniak, 1997).

Because women lead through a sort of "structured permissiveness" rather than by command and control, they tend to be more comfortable with what might be termed *bounded chaos* (Helgesen, 1995). In the overall scheme, their tolerance for disruption may afford women the opportunity to allow some conflicts to resolve themselves. When women must intercede, they typically prefer interacting on a personal level with those involved in the conflict to issuing directives (Kanter, 1994). The ethics reflected is one of caring and responsibility for others. Women commonly see themselves as agents of social change. Men identify more closely with issues of justice (Helgesen, 1990; Astin & Leland, 1991; Chliwniak, 1997). In the end, women view power as a means of achieving change through people. Men are more apt to think of having the power to make things happen (Astin & Leland, 1991; Carr-Ruffino, 1993; Chliwniak, 1997).

Balance

The old saying "men are married to their work" has a ring of truth to it. Men tend to focus on their professional lives at the expense of family. Driven by a need to complete the day-to-day tasks and achieve tangible goals associated with their positions, men can become mired in the short-run, often at the expense of long-term reflection. Men, because they tend to cut themselves off from others by assuming the lion's share of crucial decision making, face a "quiet desperation" of sorts and accept it as the cost of success (Helgesen, 1990).

In contrast, women seem to think of their jobs as one element of a multifaceted life, which helps them delegate work in an attempt to balance their personal and professional lives. In addition, women repeatedly take a big-picture perspective, which allows them to relate organi-

zational decisions to societal institutions, such as family, the American education system, and the environment (Helgesen, 1990; Carr-Ruffino, 1993).

Mentorship

Leadership and mentorship are interrelated (Irwin, 1995). Mentorship, however, is a touchy subject. The problem is not so much that men and women receive differing amounts as that women do not necessarily receive the right kinds of feedback from either men or other women. Feel-good feedback provides little assistance if a woman in a leadership position does not learn what she is not doing (Morrison, 1996; Siress, Riddle & Shouse, 1994; Carr-Ruffino, 1993). White males in particular seem uncomfortable giving constructive, on-the-job criticism to women because most women do not know how to receive it. If toughness is expected, emotional outbreaks and tears get interpreted as mental and emotional softness. Most men are not mean-spirited; once they discover that well-intentioned comments cause distress, they quit making them. The resulting lack of useful feedback limits the ability of women to hone their leadership skills (Siress et al., 1994; Morrison, 1996).

The Study of Deans

The data reported herein derive from the study of academic deans (Gmelch et al., 1996) described in chapter 1. The reported subset of education deans was 35% female. After standard demographic information was determined about both men and women in the sample, means tests were conducted to determine whether statistical differences existed between men and women along demographic, task, stress, and leadership variables.

A General Profile of Male Deans

Male deans' age averaged 55 years with over 81% of them beyond the age of 50. The majority were married. Ten percent of the male respondents reported racial or ethnic minority status. On average, they had been in their current positions for slightly more than 6 years, before which they had served as department chairs for 4 years, as associate deans for 2 years, or as deans somewhere else for almost 3 years. Most viewed themselves as a combination of faculty and administrator, although 35% thought of themselves solely as an administrator. Less than 50% had mentors, but for those who did, their mentors were usually

Table 2.1. Descriptive Statistics of Education Deans

	Male deans ($N = 140$)	Female deans ($N = 77$)
Age	55.2 yrs (81% over 50)	52.80 yrs (77% over 50)***
Married	92%	66%***
Minority	10%	19%**
Years as dean	6.2 yrs	4.4 yrs***
Years as dean before present position	2.8 yrs	1.0 yrs***
Years as associate dean	2.0 yrs	1.4 yrs
Years as department chair	4.0 yrs	2.3 yrs***
Inside hire	46%	63%**
Mentor	49%	62%*
Male mentor	88%	73%**
Dean stress (5-point scale, 5 high)	2.89 (27% rated 4 or 5)	3.26 (45% rated 4 or 5)***
Percentage of overall stress	56%	69%***
Overall job satisfaction (5 high)	3.98	4.03
Leadership effectiveness (5 high)	4.10 (86% rated 4 or 5; 25% rated 5)	4.40 (89% rated 4 or 5; 48% rated 5)***

* p-value = .10 or better
** p-value = .05 or better
*** p-value = .001 or better

white males. The majority of the male respondents had been hired for the deanship from outside their current college. On the whole, they had experienced only moderate levels of work-related stress, with less than 1% reporting that stress levels were at maximum levels. They attributed more than half of the stress they experienced to work. Most were fairly satisfied with their jobs and believed that they were effective leaders.

The majority were located at public institutions, with 36% at research, 49% at comprehensive, and 16% at baccalaureate universities. They believed they had been hired because of their personal reputations and administrative experience. They had taken the position, for the most part, to contribute to and improve the college, although more of them believed that political acuity, scholarship, and fund-raising ability were significantly more important than did women in the deanship (see Tables 2.1 and 2.2 for further detail).

Table 2.2. Professional Identity and Aspiration of Deans

	Male Deans ($N = 140$)	Female Deans ($N = 77$)
Perception of professional role		
View self as academic	5%	8%
View self as administrator	35%	26%
View self as both	60%	66%
Reason for hire (1 most important)		
Personal reputation	1.90 (48% ranked #1)	1.60 (64% ranked #1)**
Administrative experience	1.90 (49% ranked #1)	2.30 (31% ranked #1)**
Scholarship	3.10 (6% ranked #1)	3.30 (6% ranked #1)
Political acuity	3.60 (2% ranked #1)	4.00 (1% ranked #1)*
Fund-raising ability	4.80 (0% ranked #1)	5.70 (2% ranked #1)***
Gender	6.10 (7% ranked #1)	4.70 (0% ranked #1)***
Race/ethnicity	6.30 (0% ranked #1)	6.20 (2% ranked #1)
Reasons for taking the job (rated 1 low to 5 high)		
Contribute to and improve college	4.72 (77% rated 5)	4.80 (80% rated 5)
Personal growth	4.16 (43% rated 5)	4.30 (55% rated 5)
Help develop faculty	4.04 (44% rated 5)	4.20 (47% rated 5)
Advance career	3.53 (34% rated 5)	3.20 (26% rated 5)
Financial gain	2.81 (32% rated 5)	2.40 (4% rated 5)**
Power and control	2.32 (29% rated 5)	2.30 (4% rated 5)

* p-value = .10 or better
** p-value = .05 or better
*** p-value = .001 or better

General Profile of Female Deans

In contrast, female deans were significantly younger than their male counterparts. Fewer women respondents were married, and more reported minority status. They had also been in their current positions for less time than male deans. In addition, they were significantly less likely to have been a department chair or to have served in another deanship before taking the present one. The majority of women deans had been internal hires. They had had mentors more often than male

deans. A lower percentage of these mentors had been males than had male deans' mentors. Most women viewed themselves, similar to men, as a combination of faculty and administrator. Female deans reported higher work-related stress levels and attributed more of their overall stress to work. They reported a level of job satisfaction similar to that of their male counterparts. More women deans believed that they were extremely effective than did men.

Significantly fewer female deans worked at public institutions, but the distribution across institution types was fairly comparable to that of male respondents. Women felt more strongly than men that personal reputation was the key factor in their hires. They rated gender as playing a significantly more important role in their hires than men rated it. They took the position for reasons similar to men's, but a higher percentage of women rated improving the college and personal growth at the highest level of importance in deciding to become a dean. Fewer women rated advancing their careers, financial gain, and power and control as weighing heavily in their decisions (see Tables 2.1 and 2.2 for further details).

Table 2.3. Deans' Most Important Tasks

Task	Male deans			Female deans		
	Rank	*Mean*	*Percent rated 5*	*Rank*	*Mean*	*Percent rated 5*
Represent college to administration	1	4.78	83	4	4.65	76
Foster good teaching	2	4.65	70	3	4.66	68
Recruit chairs	3	4.61	71	1	4.69	73
Maintain work climate	4	4.53	57	5	4.59	73
Long range planning	5	4.49	58	2	4.67	64
Budgeting, financing, and planning**	6	4.48	63	6	4.53	61
Evaluate chairs	7	4.43	53	9	4.45	60
Effective communications across departments	8	4.39	50	8	4.51	57
Communicate goals	9	4.30	45	10	4.40	64
Encourage professional growth**	10	4.29	44	7	4.51	56
Foster diversity	16	4.10	38	12	4.23	47

Rated 1 to 5 with 1 low and 5 high
** *p*-value = .05 or better

Roles and Responsibilities

Most deans, regardless of gender, singled out similar roles and responsibilities as important. In fact, all deans agreed on what they perceived to be the 10 most important tasks of their job. More than 50% assigned the highest rating of importance to the first five tasks—representing the college to administration, fostering good teaching, recruiting chairs, maintaining a good work climate, and engaging in long-range planning. Of the other five important tasks, women were significantly more apt to rate budgeting and encouraging personal growth among faculty higher than were men; the remaining three tasks deal with communication and performance evaluation. Given current rhetoric about multiculturalism, it is a little surprising that fostering diversity was not deemed more important than it was (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.4. Top Dean Stressors

Stressor	Male deans			Female deans		
	Rank	*Mean*	*Percent rated 4 or 5*	*Rank*	*Mean*	*Percent rated 4 or 5*
Staying current in academic discipline	1	3.45	47	3	3.62	53
High self-imposed expectations***	2	3.40	54	1	3.86	63
Attending meetings	3	3.36	46	4	3.59	58
Gaining financial support for college programs	4	3.24	44	10	3.17	34
Dealing with faculty conflicts**	5	3.20	41	17	2.84	31
Balancing professional and personal life*	6	3.14	41	5	3.44	49
Too heavy workload***	7	3.09	36	2	3.65	59
Making tenure and promotion decisions*	8	3.06	40	6	3.34	42
Meeting deadlines	9	3.04	39	9	3.19	36
Evaluating chairs, faculty, and staff	10	2.93	31	15	2.93	35
Getting interrupted***	19	2.66	26	7	3.27	45
Work-related activities outside in personal time**	14	2.85	28	8	3.25	43
Promoting diversity	26	2.49	1	22	2.49	6

Rated 1 to 5 with 1 low and 5 high
* *p*-value = .10 or better
** *p*-value = .05 or better
***p*-value = .00 or better

Dean Stressors

Again, deans as a whole consistently identified certain factors as causing more stress than others. Among those receiving the highest ratings, however, women consistently ranked all but two significantly higher than did men. Women deans appear to exhibit significantly higher levels of stress because of excessive self-imposed expectations, carrying too heavy a workload, and experiencing work interruptions. In addition, the stress created by making tenure decisions, being required to carry out work-related activities outside the normal workday, and attempting to balance their professional and personal lives was significantly higher in women than in men. Male deans, however, seemed to experience significantly higher levels of stress from having to deal with faculty conflicts. Finally, the overall level of work-related stress reported by women deans was higher than the level experienced by men deans, and while the men attributed 56% of their total stress to the job, women felt that work accounted for 69% of their total stress (see Tables 2.1 and 2.4).

Leadership Attributes

All respondents in the study selected similar attributes as characteristic of their way of leading, although women felt somewhat stronger about each of them. Several of the attributes were almost universally rated as highly important. For instance, 99% of the male respondents rated keeping promises and treating others with respect either 4 or 5 on a 5-point scale. All female respondents rated these two attributes as well as reliability as either 4 or 5. In addition, female deans rated several of the leadership attributes as significantly more important than did male deans. These included following through on commitments, respecting people's differences, acting according to personal values, showing concern for the feelings of others, involving others in new ideas, working cooperatively, and showing care for others. Female deans also responded to the statement "I am an effective leader" more favorably than did men (see Tables 2.1 and 2.5).

Implications for Education Deans

Roles

For the most part, deans in colleges of education, whether male or female, define their roles similarly, experience the same types of work-related stress, and believe that certain leadership attributes are not only

Table 2.5. Leadership Attributes Most Characteristic of Deans

Attribute	Male deans			Female deans		
	Rank	*Mean*	*Percent rated 4 or 5*	*Rank*	*Mean*	*Percent rated 4 or 5*
I can be relied on	1	4.71	75%	2	4.79	20%
I keep promises	2	4.71	71%	1	4.81	81%
I treat others with respect	3	4.69	71%	4	4.73	73%
I follow through on commitments***	4	4.54	59%	3	4.79	78%
I am action-oriented	5	4.53	38%	5	4.69	73%
I respect people's differences**	6	4.49	57%	6	4.67	69%
I act according to my values**	7	4.43	54%	7	4.62	67%
I encourage others to share ideas for the future	8	4.42	49%	16	4.48	56%
I show concern for the feelings of others*	9	4.40	52%	11	4.56	62%
I involve others in new ideas and projects**	10	4.39	46%	9	4.60	64%
I work cooperatively***	16	4.31	42%	8	4.60	66%
I show I care about others***	26	4.18	42%	10	4.56	67%

Rated 1 low to 5 high
* *p*-value = .10 or better
** *p*-value = .05 or better
***p*-value = .001 or better

important but characteristic of themselves. This study does not support the notion that men take positions of authority because they have a need or desire for power or that they are autocratic by nature. (There is, however, some indication that higher percentages of men than women did take the position for these reasons. Financial gain might be another indicator of a desire for power.) To the contrary, the study suggests that both men and women education deans approach their roles as leaders relationally. This is clearly demonstrated when we examine the leadership characteristics prized most highly by respondents. Seven of the characteristics speak to working with others, and the remaining five relate to the pursuit of personal integrity that must be in place before leaders can build the level of trust necessary for collaborative work.

Balance

This study does call into question the assertion that women balance their professional and personal lives better than men in similar posi-

tions. Women were less likely to be married (and therefore less likely to have children living at home), and some women may have simplified their lives by postponing moves to leadership positions while they had children at home or by opting not to become deans if they were married. Even if this is the case, it appears that women in the deanship find this balancing act significantly more difficult and stressful than do men. In addition, women rated being value driven as more important and were significantly more likely to place high expectations on themselves. In the first instance, they may be creating internal conflicts by having to choose which they value more: personal relationships or professional careers. In the second, high self-expectations may drive them to take on excessive workloads, a problem easily compounded by interruptions during the workday because they have little time to spare. This scenario, in turn, contributes to higher stress levels and makes it more difficult to find balance.

Mentoring

Finally, more than half of the women in the study had had mentors, and quite often these mentors were women (see chapter 3). The question is, Were they good mentors? Higher stress levels among women deans may indicate that something in these relationships was lacking. The study's finding that fostering gender and racial diversity was not a particularly high priority (although it was more important to women than to men) may indicate that women, perhaps deans in general, simply do not have the time to engage in mentoring. Additionally, women who have never been mentored may especially feel a strain. They may want to support and guide other women but may not know how to do it. And, we might ask, what about the men? If mentors help newcomers brave the unknown, then surely all deans must have access to this type of support.

To complicate matters further, women in this study spent less time than men in what some consider the deanship's traditional training grounds—the associate dean and chair positions. Women in the deanship were significantly more concerned than men with operational issues such as budgeting and planning. Success in these areas usually translated into success as a dean. If women deans have not had prior exposure to these types of activities and responsibilities, they must learn them on the job—which leads to mistakes. In an effort to improve gender diversity, organizations often say, "Hire a woman," but add the caveat, "If she makes a mistake, hire a man" (Morrison, 1996). Women may

sense that they have one shot at doing the job right. They believe that experience counts—but where are they to gain it?

Leadership Preparation and Training of Women as Academic Deans

Such a question raises another: Who is responsible for discovering and developing leadership attributes in potential deans (Irwin, 1995)? The answer is simple: Effective leaders beget effective leaders. Building on this premise requires a comprehensive approach to preparing future deans. Consideration should be given to screening, development, and support. Such activities begin with the recognition by universities that as a group, they form a national institution, and they have a responsibility to prepare people for leadership positions such as the deanship. To be sure, the data hint at the possibility that colleges of education may be taking this role seriously, in that over half of the women in dean positions are inside hires.

If universities make a concerted effort to identify leadership potential early in the careers of their employees (in this case faculty), new talent can be shaped and directed. The end result? Effective leadership. Universities might start by identifying those who express an interest and those who demonstrate attributes such as good communication skills, the ability to coordinate multiple activities simultaneously, and a propensity for making sound decisions. These people could work through a series of apprenticeships or rotations in various administrative areas. A faculty member could, for instance, serve as associate chair or associate dean in her own or another college.

The success of such a system, however, depends on three crucial elements, none of which most universities possess. The first is a systematic way of screening and selecting potential candidates. At best, this is done in a rather haphazard manner that depends largely on volunteerism. Those with the most potential, however, may not volunteer but must be recruited. The second is an effective mentorship program. Just because someone is willing to serve as a mentor does not mean that he or she understands how to do so. Good mentorship of women requires a sensitivity to nontraditional approaches to dealing with people and to getting work done. It also requires that mentors give accurate feedback, even if it is not what the person being mentored wants to hear. Not every woman who expresses an interest in becoming a dean has the wherewithal to do so (Helgesen, 1995). The third necessary component is a climate that supports such relationships as viable.

Screening occurs during a trial period. The climate must be such that there is no disgrace in trying something new and failing at it. Those not cut out to be administrators must be told so, not just passed on to another institution. If universities commit to screening in such a manner, the possibility of producing a national cadre of effective deans should be higher than if it is continually left to happenstance (see chapter 7).

During preadministrative screening and during the deanship itself, professional development needs to be part of the process and should be undertaken both formally and informally. Formally, regularly scheduled seminars (one or two times a year is not enough) could be incorporated into the way the organization operates. These seminars can involve insiders who acquaint participants with procedural issues and what is happening within the institutions as well as experts, both insiders and outsiders, with knowledge of relation building, conflict resolution, budgeting, planning, stress, crisis, and time management, bringing a broader national perspective. In addition, some individuals may need to participate in formal workshops and seminars offered through other organizations. If, for instance, a prospective or current dean exhibits deficiencies, these must be addressed. Chances are that if deans continually engage in ineffective behavior, they do so because they do not recognize it as such. If the route chosen is to send such people for specialized training, then they must be told where they need improvement. Some organizations invest large sums of money sending employees to workshops in hopes that the employees will improve. But too often, good intentions go to waste because the patient does not know what she is being sent to cure and thus fails to take full advantage of the treatment.

Effective leadership involves knowing when to be decisive and when to be inclusive. One of the most promising aspects of a comprehensive approach to leadership development stems from the opportunity it presents to shape prospective deans into administrators who possess a more balanced understanding of leadership (Steinem, 1994). To accomplish this balance, some development efforts can be geared toward helping women attain some of the attributes that make men effective (particularly in the tactical areas of leadership such as crisis management, budgeting, and planning) and helping men gain some of the characteristics that make women effective (such as relation building and multidirectional communication).

Another essential component of development is regular performance reviews. Just because women may be less hierarchical in their

approach to leadership does not mean that they do not care about where they stand and how they are doing (Morris, 1997). Performance reviews must be fair and consistent across gender. Experience suggests that men are judged based on potential and women on past performance (Morris, 1997). Perhaps potential coupled with past performance gives the most realistic assessment of leadership ability.

Finally, supports must be in place. Both women and men must be provided the wherewithal to find personal balance, to incorporate careers into full, well-rounded lives. To do so, they need advocates, accurate feedback, information about the organization, and permission to fail. They also need some degree of flexibility so that they can tailor how they function in ways that capture their strengths and accommodate, as best possible, their personal circumstances.

A Matter of Degree

In the end, it appears that we are speaking about a matter of degree. To a certain extent, women in the education deanship are more relational in their approach to the job; to a degree, male deans seem to be able to balance their professional and personal lives better than women in the position. The jury appears to be out as to the degree to which mentoring is effective. And finally, to what degree will universities assume an active role in screening the ranks for potential leaders and developing college deans?

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CHAPTER 3
To Dean or Not to Dean: Personal and Professional Considerations

by Dee Hopkins, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

Several years ago, a colleague and I had a conversation about how becoming deans had changed our personal lives. Both of us were new to the deanship at different universities, and we thought it would be interesting to compare our professional and personal lives. I speculated that the lives of women deans, overall, were more stressed because "we don't have wives at home to take care of us." He was convinced that the job was just as intense for males.

Our debate led me to seek the opinions of others. Over a 2-year period, I interviewed the deans I knew best—some in my own university and some at other colleges of education in the state system[1]. Some were new deans like my colleague and I, and others had years of experience; some were young and others elderly, some male and some female.

In spite of its state's Midwestern, conservative reputation, gender equity seemed to exist at my institution. Of the eight colleges on campus, four were administered by males and four by females. Including the student affairs, graduate school, and library deans, there were six males and five females. We had two vice presidents, one male and one female, and a female president. Statewide, public colleges of education were led by three male and two female deans.

What I found is that generalizing is difficult—stereotypes seldom hold true—but that our colleagues, no matter their age or gender, felt the same strain on their personal lives as we did since accepting deanships. The ways in which deans juggle their personal and professional lives vary, but in my conversations with fellow deans from a range of settings, I found the same concerns surfacing and the same balancing acts occurring. The comments generally fell into categories of time, social life, vacations, extracurricular activities, and stress.

Time

Every dean interviewed felt he or she could achieve better balance in his or her life if there were just a little more time in every day. Time

management was handled differently by all, depending in part on each dean's age and family commitments.

A female dean in her late 30s, for example, had two preschool-aged children. She left the office daily at 5:00 p.m. because her day care provider expected her before 5:30 p.m. Once she arrived home, she was inundated with requests to play "Barney," read stories, watch cartoons, and build with Legos. Until bath time was over and her children were tucked into bed, there was no time for budget reports or faculty evaluations. Her husband, who also worked for the university, was an excellent help-mate, and she said, "He would do more if I asked him, but I want to be a significant player in my children's lives. I don't want to give that to grandparents, my spouse, or child-care providers."

Another female dean in the same age range had two boys, ages 7 and 10. Her personal life was also full with the children's activities. "I can't send a baby-sitter to watch my son win a hockey game," she said. "I have to be there and cheer him on." I asked her if she and her husband took time to be alone—such as a "date night"—or saved a part of each day just for them. She said that she honestly could not remember going out without the children unless it was a university event. "In a way, the university functions—plays, banquets, speakers—are our social life," she said. Several times during the interview, she commented that she admires the balance another female dean seems to achieve. She commented, "I look to her as role model. When I heard she was expecting her second child I couldn't believe it—I couldn't even find time to have sex with my husband and kept thinking, Wow! How did she ever get pregnant?"

One of the male deans, 57 years old and married with grown children, said that his children had sat him down a few years ago and demanded that he spend more time with his wife. "They told me I was married to the job and that it wasn't fair to their mother," he said. I asked him if he had done as they asked. "I've tried, and I am better than I used to be, but this job still takes a lot of time." His wife did not work outside of the home, but she did volunteer and also had a booth at an antique shop in town. "She is really good about allowing me the time I need for the job," he said. "And I especially appreciate her support of students. We plan our social life around the events, especially student-sponsored ones, that occur on campus." He said a typical schedule for his day is to waken at 5:30 a.m., eat breakfast with his wife, go to work around 7:30 a.m., take no break for lunch, go home around 6:00 p.m., eat supper with his wife, and retreat to the home office by 8:00 p.m. to

continue work until bedtime around 11:00 p.m. "I often wake up around 4:00 a.m. with some scheme or idea for work," he said. "When that happens, I have learned to get up and go down to the computer and take care of it. Sometimes I am able to go back to bed and sometimes I can even go back to sleep."

A male dean in his early 60s, also married with grown children, felt that his life was balanced. "When I leave around 5:00 p.m. every day, the office does not go with me," he said. He and his wife, also a stay-at-home partner, used university obligations—band concerts, ball games, musicals, plays, banquets—as their opportunity to share personal time. "We both love the arts, and we would attend a lot of these events even if I were not a dean," he said. "It gets a little harried around graduation. There can be 20 to 30 events—honors banquets, senior recitals, etc.—where I should be present. I've learned to rotate my schedule—attend 12 or 13 one year and 12 or 13 others the next."

One of the new deans of education commented, "I can't imagine having young children and being able to do this job. I would forget what they look like. Maybe with experience, I will learn to regulate the demands on my time, but so far it just has not happened." Another said, "My wife has been on me for months to take some time off, but I can't seem to make room for her—I can't believe I said that."

Overall, the deans interviewed found that weekends are no longer "their" time. Each month, several Saturdays or Sundays are filled with university performances, foundation obligations, alumni functions, or college commitments. Many deans tried to include spouses and make the events part of their social calendars. Others found relationships suffering because partners felt isolated or left alone too often. Evenings were also a problem; the deans spent at least 2 to 3 nights per week working late to complete projects, meet with committees, or attend social functions related to the college or university.

Professionally, most of the deans interviewed felt that their own research agendas stopped the day they signed their contracts. The time simply did not exist to stay current in their field, to keep up their own publishing agenda, or to participate with colleagues. "I never realized how, as dean, I would be working around the clock—7 days a week," said one. Another confessed, "I feel like I ought to go back and apologize to every dean I ever had. As a faculty member, I thought my deans were living the cushy life as administrators just going off on one trip after another."

When there was extra time, deans felt obligated to consider the college's needs first. "Every time I have a little time to write, I have three grant opportunities that would benefit the college staring me in the face," said one respondent. "I find myself working on those rather than writing in my academic field."

One way to compare time pressures on administrators with those on faculty might be to compare a journalist with a novelist. The novelist can often take long periods of time to think, draft, revise, and reflect . . . much like the faculty member. Yes, faculty time can seem short at times—especially if a presentation or class lecture has a looming deadline—but time is generally a luxury most faculty enjoy. The dean, on the other hand, functions more like the journalist, facing 30-minute segments and constant deadlines. "I have learned I can't be a perfectionist anymore," noted one dean. "Before the deanship, when I wrote, I would write and rewrite to get the wording just right—*ad nauseam.* Now I have to check the document as carefully as I can, and then send it off because five more just as urgent are waiting on my desk."

Social Life

"I don't have a social life" was a comment made over and over in the deans' interviews. Socializing seemed generally focused on university events with deans attending with their spouse or partner.[2]

When asked whether they felt an obligation to entertain their faculty—especially to open their homes for social occasions—most male deans quickly answered, "Yes, absolutely." When asked whether they typically were involved in planning the event and preparing for it, however, most replied, "Oh, no, my wife does that." The female deans also saw faculty entertainment as important, but their approach was different. One female dean with two boys still at home said she could never ask her faculty to her house. "My house has rooms that I would not even let my mother see," she said, "and I spend all Saturday cleaning. I could never get my house clean enough to invite faculty." She said she feels guilty that she does not entertain; at Christmas, she pays for a luncheon for her staff at a local restaurant. Another female dean hosts several social events in her home but has found that she cannot do it all herself. She hires university catering to bring in the food and serve. She also hires a housekeeper who cleans for her once a week and will come before a special event for an intense cleanup.

All the female deans interviewed commented on the lack of "good women friends." Such ties seem to have been left behind as they climbed

administratively. "When I taught, I always had someone to hash things over with—I always had someone to go to lunch with," said one. "Now I feel really lonely at times."

A female vice president for academic affairs said that the higher one works in administration, the more prevalent the isolation becomes. "Your peer group gets smaller and smaller—and too many things cannot be shared or said."

One of the male deans also commented on the loss of friendships. "When I moved up through the ranks, I realized I could no longer go to coffee every morning with my two best friends—I was 'the boss.' We had always used the coffee break to grouch about the person I had become." For deans who accepted positions in new places, old relationships were not an issue, but as one dean wistfully said: "I have been lonely for the last 3 years. I have to be guarded about any overtures because they are often misunderstood as favoritism." Another joked, "I feel like the Maytag repairman—nobody ever calls."

Many deans also missed the daily validation from students they had experienced as faculty. "I never realized how much I relied on my students. When I taught, I always had students praising what I did—through written evaluations or visits. I miss that more than anything." "You know, the students really built up my ego more than I thought. As a faculty member I won awards for my teaching—now no one comments on my presentations." This sentiment was nearly universal: Faculty, the group to whom deans most often speak, seldom praise their deans. Campus behavior and camaraderie are both affected by the common opposition of administration "versus" faculty.

Sometimes the recognition one receives as a dean promotes socializing. Most deans enjoyed receiving invitations to major university functions. They liked being "in the know" about things before others on campus. Choice seats at foundation dinners, plays, ball games, and other events were also appreciated. This type of recognition depended on the campus, though—some deans felt they did not get special treatment. The recognition also extends beyond the college or university to community and state relations. Many deans, especially deans of education, are known in their towns and throughout the state. They are called regularly by the press for comments concerning education. Legislators look to them for leadership, and community leaders listen to their words. But not all deans liked the recognition: "I feel like I am always in the spotlight," said one. "If I even stop for a drink at one of the local establishments, individuals are questioning why I am there. It makes social-

izing difficult at times." Another quipped, "It never fails: The one time I meet the head of the local school board or the chamber of commerce, I am at Wal-Mart on a bad hair day. I am under a microscope—evaluated all the time—how I look, what I eat, where I choose to go. I am getting paranoid, but honestly, people do watch what I do. And worse, they talk about it!"

Vacations

The majority of deans interviewed said they planned definite vacation times with their families. "There's never a good time to go—so you just have to go." One dean laughed about a 3-week car trip he took to the West Coast with his wife. "I planned the trip so that I would be back on campus in plenty of time for a major renovation project. When I came back, I found the architect had moved up the schedule and the whole project was completed in my absence—[which] showed me I was not nearly as indispensable as I had thought."

Several of the deans used 3-day weekends for getaway trips. Others planned extra days at the beginning or end of conferences and took their partners along. "I like to have my wife with me for the conference evening social events. She enjoys it, and it allows me to mix business with pleasure." Events planned for spouses are generally geared toward wives, however—my own partner turned down the opportunity to go to the spouses' breakfast and Macy's shopping excursion at one major conference we attended together.

Extracurricular Activities

The deans in my interview pool were not a healthy lot. Most just laughed when I asked if they had an exercise regimen. One commented, "If I can figure out a way to cross-country ski to the office I might work a few muscles; otherwise I cannot find the time." One female dean walked in the gym at noon, and a male dean participated in cross-country bike rides in the summer. Another female dean said she walked with a neighbor in the mornings—"if the snow is not too deep."

An older dean played bridge with his wife and a group of friends. Another male dean said he finds reading relaxing and saves some time each evening before bed for nonprofessional materials. Many deans said they could not remember the last time they had taken time to shop, especially for themselves. "I find that conventions serve as my shopping center—I'll take an hour or two and visit whatever mall or big store is within range, and I buy fast. I don't have the luxury of compari-

son shopping anymore—if I see it, I like it, and it fits, I buy it. I am probably spending way too much for clothes but I don't have the time to do it any other way."

Stress

All the individuals interviewed expressed feelings of stress. The most-named causes were personnel issues, budgeting, reports for higher administration, deadlines, fund-raising, and feelings of loss of control to sources outside of the university. One male dean had literally made himself sick and had been hospitalized twice for stress-related disorders. An older, experienced dean felt his continual sinus problems are stress related and hoped his approaching retirement would see an end to them and his daily medication. One of the younger female deans said that her family flees in any direction to avoid her anger. "Even as I am ranting and raving at them, I feel guilty because I know they are not the problem. I just can't rant and rave at the individuals who are the problem, so they become easy substitutes."

Education deans in particular felt pressure from outside constituents. They and their faculty were called upon to travel extensively in the state and to be present at numerous statewide meetings. One dean commented, "My faculty are spread so thin with outside programs, grants, and governor's initiatives that I feel like I need a second string to send in and teach. It becomes difficult if not impossible to focus on long-term goals for the college and keep things going—outside interference is too great and too powerful."

Political freedom was a concern for some. Most of the newer deans interviewed felt they could not voice their personal opinions as openly as they had as faculty. "Regardless of the issue, I have to be careful what I say—and I pray every time the press calls that what I read in the paper the next morning is going to be what I really meant," said one dean.

Lack of administrative support was mentioned by several of the deans as a factor contributing to stress. One said, "You need to be prepared, because as a dean you are on your own." Another noted, "I feel like upper administration likes me, but no one has the time to help me be a better dean." One new male dean commented, "Some days I feel like a fish out of water—and I really hate to ask the other deans on campus because I feel like they will see how little I know—[and] I need their respect." Many new deans mentioned that as faculty, they could always talk things over with colleagues or go to their department chair.

For deans, most work topics are confidential, limiting whom they can consult for help.

The deans also cited respect, or lack of it, as a stress factor. One male dean in his 40s said with a smile, "I feel like Rodney Dangerfield—I don't get no respect." "The deanship is so classic middle management . . . I really thought that as dean I could make major changes. Life is not like that on my campus. Instead I spend most of my time cajoling everyone to get along. I have little 'real' decision-making authority." Indeed, most of the newer deans interviewed quickly admitted that being dean is different from how they pictured it as a faculty member.

Summary

Moving into a dean's position changes both one's personal and one's professional life. Accompanying the increased authority, recognition, and prestige is a loss of time to call one's own. The position brings increased stress and administrative isolation.

The deans who seemed to be most comfortable in their positions, and most willing to continue in those positions, were the ones who had found a workable balance between personal and professional demands. No one interviewed was completely satisfied with the balance they had achieved, but all were continually striving to attain it. When asked whether they would choose to be a dean if they had the chance to do it over again, all the deans of education laughed and shook their heads *no* while speaking the word *yes*. "I think it would be hard to go back to a faculty line after being an administrator. I like being in charge," confessed one. Another said, "For all the griping I do, and all the things I miss, I still feel like I am accomplishing things as dean that I could not do as a faculty member—I am impacting education. That's important to me."

Notes

1. Special thanks go to the deans at South Dakota State University who contributed to this chapter—Herb Cheever, Fred Cholick, Gail Dobbs-Tidemann, Danny Lattin, Steve Marquardt, Roberta Olson, Duane Sander, and Laurie Stenberg-Nichols—and to the other education deans in South Dakota who agreed to be interviewed—Jeri Engelking, Tom Hawley, Dean Myers, and Sherry Tebben. I am grateful as well for the help of other administrative colleagues throughout the country who answered my queries graciously.

2. None of the deans interviewed was unmarried, although I do know several single female deans and am sure single male deans exist, but I do not know any. Most of the male deans interviewed had wives who did not work full-time outside the home. Most of the female deans had spouses who did work outside of the home. If the husband's employment was not with the university, these women deans expanded their socialization to include the husband's associates.

CHAPTER 4
The Dean's Rites of Passage: Transition to Leadership

by Walter H. Gmelch, Iowa State University

In higher education, the development of academic leaders is at a critical juncture. While the corporate world complains that it has merely progressed from the Bronze Age of leadership to the Iron Age (Conger & Benjamin, 1999), many fear that in higher education we may still be in the Dark Ages. To help illuminate the way to the Building Age of our leadership capacity, this chapter investigates the socialization of academic leaders.

Faculty and administrators alike speak about a great leadership crisis in higher education. Blue ribbon commissions and executive reports from groups such as the American Council on Education (Eckel, Hill, & Green, 1998), Kellogg Commission (1999), Kellogg Foundation (1999), and the Global Consortium of Higher Education (Acker, 1999) call for bolder and better college and university leadership. The transformation of faculty to academic leaders takes time, training, and commitment, and not all deans and department chairs make the complete transition to academic leadership. This chapter addresses questions about how deans do make a successful transition to leadership.

1. What are the rites of passage of new deans?
2. What are the stages of an academic's transition to the deanship?
3. What factors influence deans' transitions?
4. What are the keys for successful entry into the role of dean?

What are the social and psychological stages academics pass through as they move into administration? New deans find themselves in an adult transition paradox: Life depends on growth, growth creates change, change consumes energy (which is finite), and all transitions consume energy. To overlook professional transition would be to eliminate self-development.

While there is no shortage of theory regarding stages of personal development in academe, considerable discrepancy exists among the theorists (Bridges, 1991). What literature can help illuminate the unknown path professionals take as they change jobs?

Rites of Passage

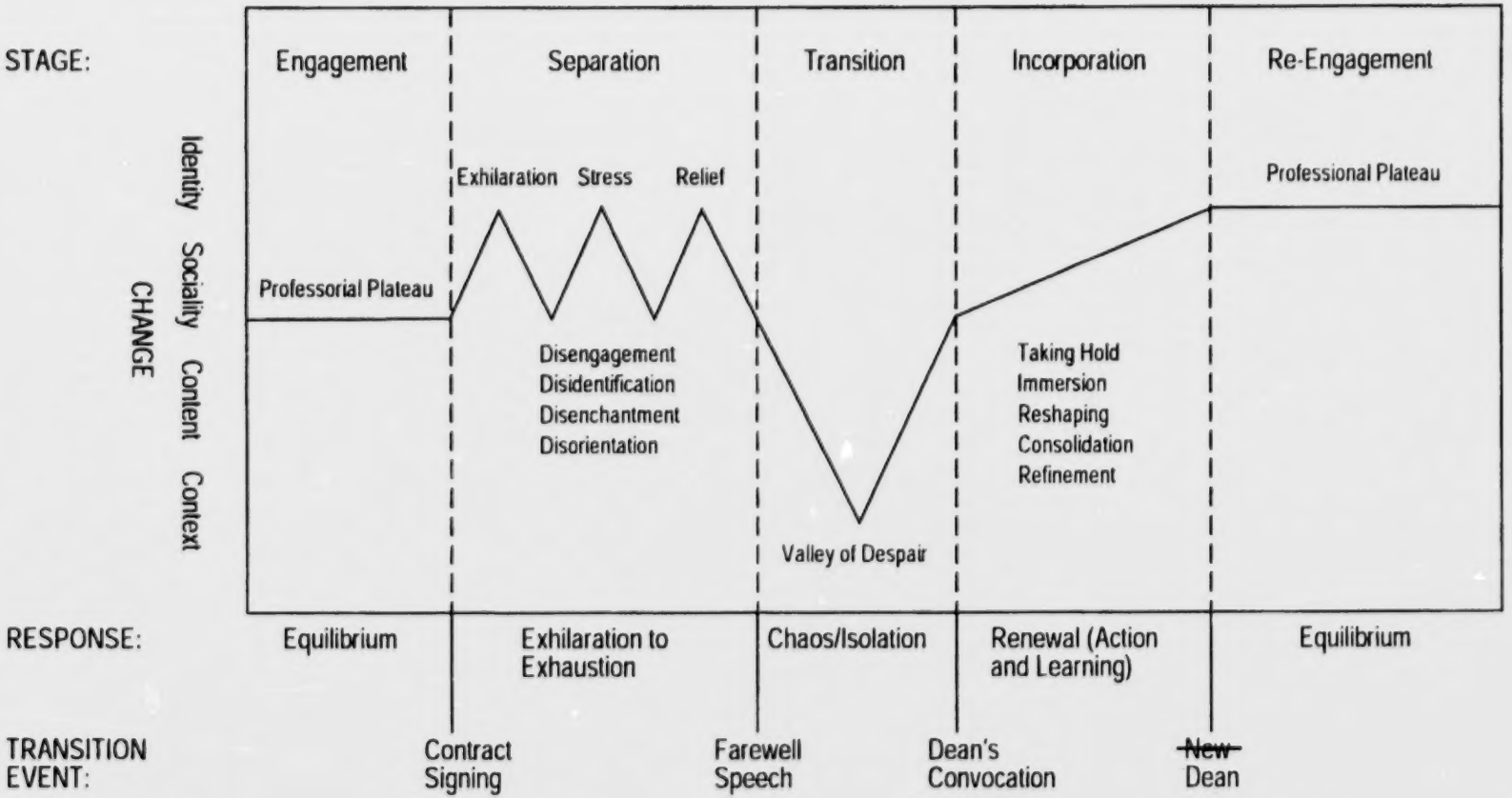
Traditional tribal societies place tremendous emphasis on transitions in their social culture, just as did ancient civilizations. Arnold Van Gennep, a Dutch anthropologist, first interpreted these rites for a modern, Western audience almost 95 years ago and coined the term *rites of passage* to describe the structure of life transitions dealing with birth, puberty, death, selection of a chief, and creation of the shaman (Van Gennep, 1908/1960; Bridges, 1980). While appointing a new dean is not equivalent to anointing a shaman, the rites model does apply broadly.

Rites of passage involve three phases: separation, transition, and incorporation (Van Gennep, 1908/1960). The first phase separates a person from the old and familiar social context and puts the person through a symbolic death experience. Next comes a time in isolation in what Van Gennep calls the *neutral zone*, a gap between the old way of being and the new. Finally, when the intended inner changes have taken place, a person is brought back and reenters the social order in a new role. Rituals of passage are simply a way of focusing and making more visible the natural transition pattern of dying, chaos, and renewal. Transition management writer William Bridges used Van Gennep's cultural model to examine the three natural phases of job transitions: endings, the neutral zone, and the new beginnings (1980, 1991).

Sociologists refer to the transition period from the time of appointment to a position until the time of acceptance in the organization as the *organizational socialization* period. From the many organizational socialization developmental models (Hart, 1993), a three-stage model emerges similar to the rites model: *anticipation, encounter,* and *adaptation.* The anticipatory socialization stage begins when one is selected for the new position and has made the decision to leave the current position. This phase is characterized by breaking off loyalties to the present position and developing new loyalties. Louis (1980) refers to this as "leave taking." The encounter stage begins when one actually starts the new position and begins to cope with the relationships, routines, and surprises. Finally, the adaptation stage begins when one develops strong, trusting relationships in the academy and grows familiar with how things work in the informal organization.

This theoretical framework has been used to study new department chairs' transition from faculty to administration (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999; Gmelch & Seedorf, 1989; Seedorf, 1990) and new school administrators' socialization process (Ortiz, 1982). Figure 4.1 portrays

Figure 4.1. The New Dean's Rite of Passage



a more complete cycle, beginning with the *engagement* stage from which the academic launches into the dean socialization process, then moving through the three stages of socialization (using Van Gennep's terms of *separation*, *transition*, and *incorporation*), and ending with *re-engagement* or settling into the deanship.

The studies of department chairs that I have helped conduct found that while many academics successfully enter the anticipatory and encounter stages of socialization, few complete the adaptation stage (Gmelch & Seedorf, 1989). One indication of this phenomenon is the short tenure of department chairs. Additionally, at least 65% of department chairs return to faculty status rather than continuing in academic administration (Carroll, 1991). These findings led us to question in a subsequent study whether faculty had successfully socialized into academic administration (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999), and we concluded that many department chairs had not, in fact, been successfully socialized into the position.

The Center for Academic Leadership also conducted a parallel series of studies of academic deans in 1996 and 1997 (involving 1,440 deans in the United States and 300 in Australia) that called attention to the difficulties new deans experience as contrasted with deans with 2 or more years' experience (Gmelch & Wolverton, 1998, 1999). The challenges facing deans increasingly seem to doom the deanship to an imperiled existence (Gmelch, 1999).

Stages of Transition to the New Deanship

Engagement: The Professorial Plateau

Entry into the deanship starts from somewhere. Professors, like school teachers, have two options in the academy: They can establish a career within their discipline, or they may decide to "try their hand" at academic administration. Either of these options presents differing socialization processes for the academic (Ortiz, 1982). Those who remain in their academic endeavors change according to the requirement of their discipline. Those who opt for administration as a career may undergo severe changes (socialization) as they move into administration.

Most academics do not enter the academy with administration in mind. The conventional path to becoming a dean is "professional ascension," or rising through the ranks (Morris, 1981). Kathryn Moore and her colleagues (1983) found that the majority of deans have been faculty, and this position has constituted the principal entry portal to the dean's career trajectory. However, a strictly hierarchical linear model

for the deanship is not clear (see chapter 1). Once employed by the academy, no particular leadership or administrative experience seems to lead to the deanship. As a matter of fact, "more deans conform to variations from the 'norms' than to the 'norms' themselves" (Moore et al., 1983, p. 514).

While it is not evident whether deans matriculate through certain administrative ranks before reaching the deanship, as indicated in chapter 1, most deans have had experience as department chairs (60%) prior to their deanships, less than 40% had been associate deans, and 18% had administrative experience outside the academy (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Hermanson, 1996). However, the transition from the professorial plateau into the deanship is different in nature and magnitude than the initial transition from faculty into the administrative roles of department chair or associate dean. Most department chairs probably do not strive to permeate the boundaries of administration, or seek to be totally socialized into the administrative structure of the university.

After I had assumed an interim "inside" dean position in 1997 and accepted an "outside" dean position at another institution in 1998, I undertook a 3-year-long self-study to comprehensively investigate this period of transition. My data included a personal daily journal of activities, beliefs and reflections kept over the 3-year period; a record of daily schedules documenting each day's activities; a series of semi-structured, open-ended interviews conducted by an outside researcher; and documentation of the events and challenges facing the college during the period of study. By the end of 2000, the collected evidence included 1,468 pages of transcriptions from my journal, 912 days of daily schedules, 120 pages of interview transcriptions, and several archived boxes of documents.

The methodological approach I employed to examine my data, grounded in the interpretive perspective advocated by MacPherson (1984), rests on the premise that to understand the socialization process it is necessary to "understand an administrator's sense of 'being an administrator' over time in terms of what he or she does and his or her reflections on what is done" (p. 60). Leadership scholars are strangely silent on the issues of leadership succession, at least from the leader's perspective (Sorenson, 2000). The interview procedure and intensive reflective diary permitted me to report on my routine and nonroutine activities as well as my perspectives, beliefs, and overall sense-making (Straton-Spicer & Spicer, 1987).

Separation: The Ending of an Era

Passage to a deanship begins with letting go of something. It starts at the end of the plateau period—ready to take a plunge, to test the water, to become an administrator. In anticipation of a position in academic leadership, faculty may seek formal preparation (professional development conferences, workshops, and programs) or informal means of enlisting mentors such as "GAS" activities (Getting the Attention of Superiors through committee work and the like) (Griffiths, 1966), and so on. This is vastly different from the anticipatory stage of teachers entering school administration. Two very different types of candidates seek the administrative role in elementary and secondary schools. The majority of candidates consider teaching as a transitional role, having aspired to being a principal before teaching; the other candidates enter teaching as teachers and later move into administration (Blood, 1966). In contrast, professors customarily enter higher education to engage in scholarship and teach in their discipline and are socialized in their discipline for an average of 16 years (from graduate school through the professorial ranks) before considering a new role in academic administration (Carroll, 1991). Whereas teachers must formally engage in the study of administration to become certified to administer, the Ph.D. in higher education is considered sufficient to enter academic administration.

Preparing to separate begins with the search process: scanning the *Chronicle of Higher Education* for openings, letting colleagues and mentors know one is considering a move, receiving a nomination call, and finally writing a letter of application. For me, the reality check hit at the interview stage when I had to visualize myself in a new place and position and conduct a self-assessment of the fit and wisdom of a transition. This prelaunch period may take weeks, months, or even years before the right offer challenges the candidate to end the current position and start anew. My separation stage formally started with the verbal commitment and signing of the new contract, although the anticipatory socialization began months earlier.

Thus the new deanship starts with an end. As T. S. Eliot wrote, "To make an end is to make a beginning. The end is where we start from." Four natural emotions emerge during this period of separation: disengagement, disidentification, disenchantment, and disorientation (Bridges, 1980).

Disengagement. Traditional peoples universally believe that in times of inner transition, people need to be separated from their familiar

place in the social order—removed from family and sometimes forcibly taken out into a remote area. The prospective shaman leaves the village on a long trek of self-discovery. The new dean can experience disengagement from close faculty relationships, from scholarship as he or she knew it as a faculty member, from familiar departmental settings to new "distant" dean office settings, and from being a faculty colleague to being a mediator, boundary spanner, and politician. Clarified, channeled, and supported, the dean can emerge strengthened and renewed. Without such supports, however, a dean's development is left to random and informal self-exploration.

Disidentification. In breaking connections to the old institution, the new dean loses part of his or her identity. For many new deans, the loss may be one of faculty roles that once prescribed their behavior and made them readily identifiable. When department chairs are asked about their roles, most respond first with their faculty identity, but a greater proportion of deans cite their administrative identity. Only 6% of deans see themselves primarily as faculty in contrast to 52% of department chairs (Gmelch & Wolverton, 1999). Socialization into administration and away from faculty status becomes much more pronounced for deans.

In traditional rite-of-passage ceremonies, signs of the old identity are removed, represented by shaved heads, painted faces, masks, unusual clothing, or the abandonment of one's old name (Bridges, 1980). Some of these tribal customs are little different for new deans as they change to more formal wardrobes, act more guarded in their demeanor, and are referred to more deferentially as "the dean" rather than by their proper names. Students of Zen don robes as they enter the temple to acknowledge their change of role (Sorenson, 2000); deans seldom feel free to remove their official "robes," even outside the campus "temple."

Disenchantment occurs when deans discover that in some sense the role of faculty member is no longer real for them. Most deans say they severely reduced their level of scholarship upon becoming a dean—and that they were dissatisfied with that change (Gmelch et al., 1996). Furthermore, faculty tend not to perceive deans as colleagues or faculty members, and they distance themselves socially from deans. New deans tend not to socialize much with their faculty to avoid the perception of favoritism. Instead, they spend time becoming acclimated in their new social circle of deans, central administrators, and external stakeholders. As a result, new deans both lose their identity as scholars and start to feel a sense of isolation from faculty colleagues.

Disorientation affects deans' sense of both space and time. In old passage rituals, the individual in transition often would be taken out into unfamiliar territory and left there for a time. The dean, too, moves in new and unfamiliar circles, trading time spent in departmental faculty meetings for provost meetings and unfamiliar engagements with previously unknown external constituents.

Thus, the new deanship starts with the end of the previous position. The new dean has to let go of the old before embracing the new, resulting in feelings of disengagement, disenchantment, and disorientation and an unclear sense of identity. This separation stage is a time of turning away from the familiar and leads to the "solitude of the forest for a time of reflection and study" (Bridges, 1980, p. 45)—the transition stage.

Transition: The Valley of Despair

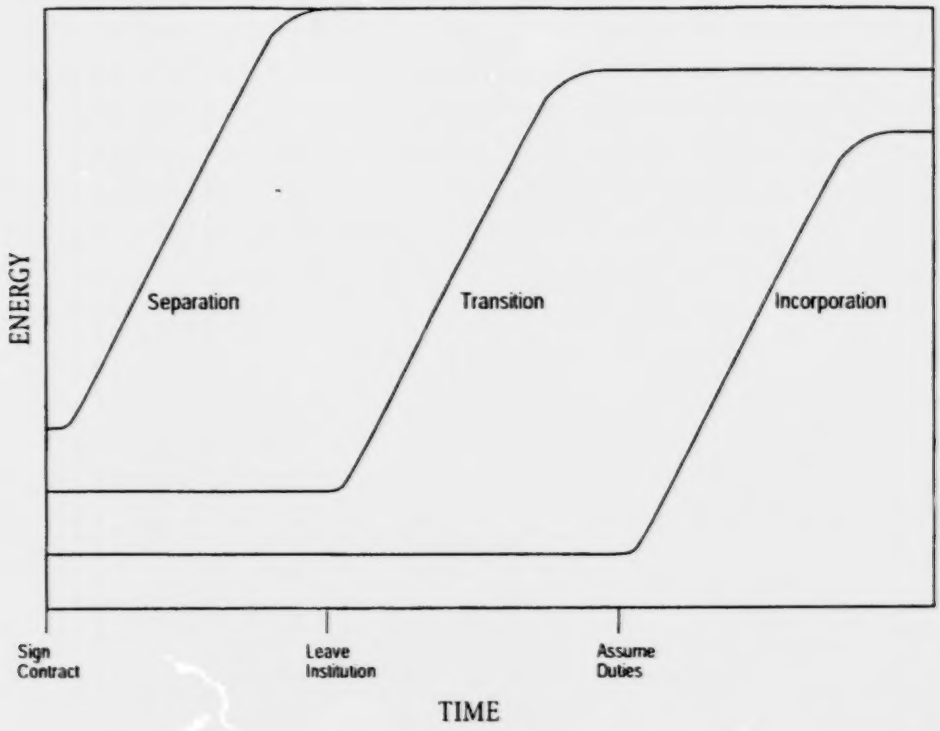
The transition stage is the time between the old job and the new—a rich time for insight and discovery. It actually begins with the anticipation of a move and continues throughout the phases of incorporation and reengagement. Whereas Figure 4.1 depicts distinct starting and stopping points of each phase in a linear continuum, a more realistic model may be the overlapping phases in Figure 4.2, with one dominating at a time but the other phases still present.

Certain events or ceremonies usually signal the end of the separation period and the beginning of the transition to the new position. A farewell reception for a new dean might bring formal closure to one position and launch him or her into the next phase. Although this symbolic rite of passage typically occurs at the end of the academic year, the transition phase actually begins (in concert with the separation phase) months earlier with signing the contract for a new position.

William Bridges (1980) believes the transition stage is not so much an important part of the adjustment process as a temporary state of loss to be endured. Transition is kind of a "street-crossing" procedure: One tries not to be in the middle any longer than necessary. It is a time when the old way is gone and the new doesn't feel comfortable yet.

Transition can, in fact, be a needed period of self-reflection and renewal following the struggles of the separation phase. The new dean's "valley of despair" (see Figure 4.1) represents the time in the middle of the transition period when one finds ways of making meaning out of being alone and away from familiar distractions. Just as tribal elders provided tools in the form of rituals, deans in transition must fashion their own tools to help shorten their transitions today:

Figure 4.2. Three Phases of the New Dean



1. *Find professional "hearth" time.* In old passage rituals, people learned to solicit the aid of dream figures to cultivate mental states of heightened awareness, sometimes enhanced by meditation, chanting, and psychotropic substances. Today leadership tends to be in a constant "whitewater"; how can deans reflect while in the rapids of transition? What cultural practices support reflection? Sharon Parks and colleagues (Daloz, Keen, Keen, & Parks, 1997) contends people need hearth time—a place in front of a fire to sit for a few minutes to an hour—that fosters contemplation with its stability and the motion of flickering flames. Many modern homes do not have a hearth or place to linger. Families used to have "table time" to talk and reflect, rather than listening to sound bites from a television. Communities had the "commons" for discourse, such as the town plaza and Austrian-style coffee houses. Deans need to create their own hearth time—while flying on planes, driving extended distances, browsing in bookstores, sharing a bagel and coffee with a friend, or working at home away from interruptions.

2. *Keep a reflective journal.* Use the transition time as an opportunity to take stock and reflect: What went well? What got in the way? What would I do differently tomorrow?

3. *Leave right—don't evacuate.* The conditions under which one leaves significantly impact the success of the transition. A "healthy leave taking" occurs when one is looking forward to the new position but also has fond memories of the past position (Alvy & Robbins, 1998). Also, leaving right means leaving the old position in the best possible order and providing a smooth transition for the successor. Rather than just cleaning out the desk or passing the gavel as a symbol of power, pass the baton as part of a succession relay team—in stride—as a symbol of cooperation to the newcomer.

4. *Take time for the transition.* New deans need "down time" between positions. Bridges suggests, "We need not feel defensive about this apparently unproductive time-out at turning points in our lives, for the neutral zone [transition] is meant to be a moratorium from the conventional activity of our everyday existence" (1980, p. 114). The attentive inactivities of walking, watching, traveling, and dreaming in this transition period create healthy time for reflection and preparation to enter the incorporation stage.

Incorporation: The New Beginning

Former academic administrator and renowned anthropologist Mary Catherine Bateson once reflected that being a new dean is like learning to ice skate in full view of one's faculty. Or, as English poet Samuel Butler once said, sometimes life "is much like playing a violin solo in public and learning the instrument as one goes on." As with learning an instrument, the incorporation or adaptation stage takes time and represents a gradual passage incorporating learning and action. The "new beginning" starts formally with the move into the dean's office, but the assimilation and success can take from a few months to years. Scholars do not agree on the duration of this period. With public school administrators, some visible change and movement into incorporation occur within 3 months of a high school principal's succession (Lamoreaux, 1990), while with other groups, change can last from about 18 months (Weindeling & Earley, 1987) to 2 years (Cosgrove, 1986). A study of 14 business management successions concluded that the process of "taking charge" can be long, taking from 2 to 2 1/2 years—or even longer, or not at all (Gabarro, 1985). Similarly, Forrest Parkay found that a few principals fail to achieve even basic socialization after 5 years (Parkay & Hall, 1992), and in higher education, many department chairs enter the anticipatory and encounter stages but do not successfully adapt to their leadership positions (Seedorf, 1990). Those failing to socialize

fully into their new positions continue to face damage control, chaos, and conflict, while those who become incorporated reach a level of stability, success, and routinization—and move on into the final stage of reengagement or reentry with a sense of belonging, commitment, and intimacy (Pollock, 1998).

The incorporation of the new dean follows a pattern similar to the corporate executives as they take charge of their new positions: taking hold, immersion, reshaping, consolidation, and refinement (Gabarro, 1985). While the overall length of time for incorporation may vary, the phases mirror the structure of the academic year.[1]

New deans feel settled in when three conditions come together. First comes *commitment* to the institution and college, as indicated by a deep sense of pride in the university's accomplishments and new loyalty to the institution and colleagues. Second is a sense of *competence* in deaning—understanding the roles and responsibilities of the dean and competence in performing the duties. Finally, new deans feel *confident* and *comfortable* with their faculty, staff and students, their role in the university, their place in their profession as deans, and their role as leaders in the academic community.[2] At this point, a sense of calmness, personal control, and confidence may come over them, as they feel *credible* to their colleagues, to central administrators, and to their associates in the field. At any time, however, critical events challenging the support of the college, the financial stability of the economy, the practice of the education profession, or mission of the college may interrupt and destroy this sense of calmness or even challenge their credibility. The seasoned dean responds to such crises by learning and taking action, not as a newcomer, but based on past experience.

Endings and beginnings, with emptiness and valleys in between—that is the shape of the transition period in professionals' lives. In universities these times come far more frequently than one might imagine. While academics enjoy stable careers, the transition to a deanship is a transition to a new profession.

Reengagement/Renewal: The Stage of Success

Once the intended inner changes have taken place, a person reenters the social order on a new level of the professional plateau. Not all deans, however, successfully transcend the socialization process and resettle with a sense of reengagement. Some have difficulty, as they may choose not to settle. Either they haven't learned or they don't like their new culture. Some academics reject their new administrative roles and wish

to return to faculty status. Others are afraid of being disloyal to their old colleagues or previous institution and never change their loyalties. These new deans don't leave their previous jobs well, which impacts how they enter the new positions.

Factors Influencing Dean Transition[3]

A number of factors shape how deans progress through the socialization process and impact the timing and patterns of assimilation into the new position. Important influences include the new dean's origin, experience, gender, ethnicity, and family.

Inside Versus Outside Deans

Many features can be used to identify characteristics of deans, but the one that receives most serious attention in education as well as in the corporate world is that of selection of "inside" versus "outside" candidates. An insider is one who emerges from within the college, while an outsider transfers from another university. Other possibilities also exist (Grusky, 1969): an "out-outsider," the dean who transfers from another type of organization such as the public schools or governmental agencies; and an "out-insider," the one who is brought into the college from another department or college within the institution. These two hybrids create unique challenges for the incumbent dean, as they must be socialized into the higher education culture (out-outsider) or the academic discipline (in-outsider).

Insiders take hold of the position much more quickly than do outsiders and begin their deanship with a larger wave of action (Gabarro, 1985). However, insiders must overcome past debts and allegiances and strong preconceptions about themselves held by others and by themselves (Gmelch, 2000b). The head of a dean search firm observed that one finds new energy and insight by moving to a new deanship, but that is not always possible staying at the same institution (Andersen, 1999). Bridges (1980) concurs that the same self-image and style hinder growth. In contrast, James Collins and Jerry Porras investigated the corporate practice of hiring outside CEOs to stimulate fundamental change; they found that in 1,700 years of combined life spans across what they termed "visionary" companies, they found only four individual incidents of going outside for a CEO, and those in only two companies. Their research "dashed to bits the conventional wisdom that significant change and fresh ideas cannot come from insiders" (1994, p. 10). Clearly, there are trade-offs with either type of candidate.

In the 1980s, the majority (58%) of newly appointed deans came from the outside (Poskzim, 1984), but a decade later, only 43% came from outside the institution (Gmelch et al., 1996). Regarding tenure or length of service, succession theorists argue that a leader's time in office is strongly influenced by whether the leader comes from within or outside the organization (Brady & Helmich, 1984). The "theory of organizational equilibrium" espoused by James March and Herbert Simon (1958) explains that the inside successor becomes bound to the organization. Richard Carlson's (1962) work with superintendents supports this hypothesis, showing that the average tenure of outside-recruited top executives is significantly shorter than for the inside-promoted successor.

Rookie Versus Veteran Deans

In a 1996 study of deans, 38% were in their first deanship (Gmelch et al.). While this study focuses on the new rookie dean, even the veteran dean who takes another dean position at a new institution must deal with the institutional socialization process of building an institutional knowledge base (context) and a new network of colleagues (sociality). The new dean may emphasize personal competence more than the veteran, whose primary concern may be organizational learning and relationship building (see Figure 4.3). In longitudinal studies of the development of managers, new managers noted that they did not have the self-confidence to aspire to general management jobs until they had acquired three kinds of competence: *analytical competence* to recog-

Figure 4.3. The New Dean's Primary Emphases

	Establish new role	Learn new culture	Demonstrate personal competence
Veteran dean			
Insider	X		
Outsider		X	
Rookie dean			
Insider			X
Outsider		X	X

nize and formulate problems to be worked on; *interpersonal competence* to build and maintain various kinds of relationships and groups; and *emotional competence* to handle the emotional demands of the managerial role itself (Schein, 1985). This search for competence may also be the primary challenge for new deans.

Formal Versus Informal Socialization

When deans follow in the footsteps of a strong role model, they experience *serial* socialization. In contrast, *disjunctive* socialization occurs when no significant role model exists and deans have to build a new role or alter an existing one (Hart, 1993). While an absence of role models allows new deans more freedom to innovate, it also creates more ambiguity about what is expected of them. When innovation is needed, the lack of role models can be beneficial. Just as mentors can constrain creativity, role models can restrict thinking and constrain action. If change is needed in the new dean's college, then "the socialization process should minimize the possibility of allowing incumbents to form relationships with their likely successors" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 250). The new dean needs to respect the past, but not necessarily let it dictate the future.

Women and Ethnic Minority Versus Men Deans

The issue of formal versus informal socialization is compounded for women and ethnic minority educators, who report significant stress in pursuit of leadership opportunities in schools (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988) and in ascending the faculty ranks (Gmelch, Wilke, & Lovrich, 1986). Women faculty, for example, experience significantly more stress from professional identity and time constraints than do men. Although education deans are 35% women and 15% minority (Gmelch, 1999), these ranks do not suffice to overcome the feeling that they "must negotiate their way through more ambiguity with less support than their more conventional peers, because few people like them have filled the role" (Hart, 1993, p. 457).

Shape of the Transition Stages

The dean's rite of passage starts with a separation, moves through a transition, and ends with incorporation. Many factors may influence the shape and duration of the socialization process: leadership experience; style of leadership; support from mentors, family, and friends; ability to handle conflict and ambiguity; conditions in the college; work-

ing relationship with the provost; transition time from offer to job entry; and other conditions in the context of the college and content of the job. Although some factors are more critical than others, no one factor generally dominates. Nevertheless, if the deck is stacked against the incoming executive, the succession is doomed (Gabarro, 1985).

Tips on Transitions

None of the above influences—inside or outside orientation, new or experienced deans, gender or ethnic status, or formal or informal socialization—predetermines the success or failure of the new dean. However, any transition requires one to manage change and can create debilitating amounts of tension and anxiety. An effective transition management program must deal with these transitions and the probable disorientation and isolation that may result. The following tips on transitions serve to place the rites of passage in perspective and sink an anchor to the "trade" winds of the passage for new deans.

1. *Confide in your confidant(s).* Nurture your friendships. Having true friends with whom you can meaningfully communicate puts an anchor to the wind. It is dangerous to leave finding a mentor to chance—those who pick you up may be "fringe" people who have the wrong motive (Pollock, 1998).

Even for spiritual issues, Parker Palmer suggests that "while the inner work is a deeply personal matter, it is not necessarily a private matter. There are ways to be together in community to help each other with that *inner work*" (1990, p. 19). Leaders in transition need to confide and find comfort by reflecting with their trusted colleagues.

2. *Keep one foot in something comfortable.* New managers are most concerned about their competency to perform new skills in a new role. Build in some comfort zones based on previous successes in scholarship and teaching. Teach a short course or honors class, or keep up with your scholarship by working with a team of researchers.

3. *Consider your family and friends.* The end of the honeymoon and the empty-nest syndrome are other situations that evoke a sequence of changes and adjustments similar to the new dean's transition period. When new deans are going through a transition, so are their families and friends. All significant others should be involved in the decision to make the transition, and in the end, those staying need as much help as those who are leaving.

4. *Take care of yourself physically and socially.* Several new deans report experiencing elevated blood pressure, reduced mental acuity due

to information overload, and increased weight as symptoms in their first year of the deanship. In addition, the endless evening and weekend obligations can challenge new deans to "get a life." Some salvation may be found in booking season tickets to athletic and cultural events and blocking time for physical activities—opportunities that abound at most colleges and universities.

5. *Use your transition for new learning.* Why do academics enter their profession in the first place? To learn. The "new beginnings" represent a tremendous opportunity to learn about the university, those who run it, and those who influence it.

6. *Find reflective time.* People rise to leadership by a tendency toward extroversion, sometimes at the cost of internal awareness (Palmer, 1990). Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, the Austrian composer, once reflected, "When I am . . . entirely alone . . . or during the night when I cannot sleep, it is on such occasions that my ideas flow best and most abundantly. Whence and how these come I know not nor can I force them." Use the transition period as a time of self-discovery and development to learn about your style, motives, and interests. Kouzes and Posner (1987) write, "Ultimately, leadership development is a process of self-discovery. Musicians have their instruments. Engineers have their computers. Accountants have their calculators. Leaders have themselves. They are their own instruments."

7. *Take a break between endings and beginnings.* Pace yourself and allow time for your battery to recharge. A close colleague of mine advises to take 2 weeks between jobs to reflect, relax, and decompress. Realize "it is not over until it is over." One must end the past before the new may begin.

8. *Recognize the stages and shapes of transition.* Become familiar with the stages of the transition process, and recognize the amount of energy consumed and adjustment needed with each successive stage. Recognize several assumptions: (a) The stages of socialization occur in a growth sequence such that one must deal with the ending before embarking on a beginning; (b) while the stages may be understood as a linear continuum (see Figure 4.1), each one lingers on as new phases commence (see Figure 4.2); (c) socialization of deans typically is not formal and externally imposed—so they must manage and create it from within; (d) while the three-stage socialization process operates most of the time, it does not apply universally, as the duration and intensity of the process depends on the individual, institution, and external conditions; and (e) more than a one-time linear process or an

overlapping series of events, professional socialization resembles a continuous Möbius strip throughout one's lifetime.

If the primary responsibility of deans is to create a college culture conducive to collegiality and productivity, then they must learn to recognize and cope with the stages of their own transition to leadership. Ultimately, the remedy rests with the new dean. As an old Buddhist philosopher once prophesied: "To know and not to use, is not yet to know."

Notes

1. See Gmelch, 2000a, for a description of each of the stages of incorporation.
2. As Kouzes and Posner (1993) point out, credibility is something others bestow on leaders.
3. See also Gmelch, 2000b, for a discussion of the factors influencing a dean's transition.

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CHAPTER 5
Understanding the Organization Where Deans Work: Frames and Models

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> *Where there is a heavy component of faculty governance, leadership can be difficult. I tried to go slowly; pressing faculty to be aware of factors broader than their own discipline, department or school. Some things simply take awareness. Sometimes you have to let an issue age until there is at least a majority acceptance if not widespread or unanimous acceptance. Our system doesn't allow for an authoritarian management style, sometimes not even a very decisive one. It's difficult to be decisive when the entire faculty has to come to agreement on a course of action.* (McCarty & Reyes, 1987, p. 4)

The dean quoted by McCarty and Reyes had just resigned after 12 years in his position. His words capture much of the job of being a successful dean—how to lead a group of people who essentially want to retain decision-making power. The job is further complicated by its existence within a larger, complex organization. The job is fraught with conflicts and ambiguities (Geiger, 1989; Gmelch, 1999). Much of the advice deans are given consists of ways to reduce ambiguity, clarify roles, and align expectations; however, ambiguity and conflict are inherent in institutions of higher education and the job of the dean. This chapter suggests that deans who can understand their organizations through different conceptual frameworks can learn to appreciate the ambiguity and use it to their advantage, becoming more effective and achieving greater satisfaction.

Models of Governance

Little of the literature on the deanship discusses the institutional context within which a dean operates. In fact, most of it makes tacit assumptions that the university is a rational bureaucracy, and any variance from the rational model can be attributed to its political nature. One of the most useful systems for understanding organizations through different frameworks was developed by Bolman and Deal (1991). In this system, developed essentially for nonacademic organi-

zations, the authors present four frameworks: the rational systems frame, the human resource frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame. Each frame is based on a set of theories by which organizations can be analyzed. McCarty and Reyes (1987) made a unique contribution in delineating a similar set of models of governance by which one could analyze the deanship. These models include the bureaucratic, rational, collegial, and political as well as a model based on the work of March and Olsen (1976) they dubbed "organized anarchy." McCarty and Reyes report that deans tend to use bureaucratic and political processes, while department chairs report more use of collegial decision making. They conclude that all models are useful in understanding governance at a large research institution except organized anarchy, which they say should be rejected as a useful descriptor.

There are many similarities between these two systems. Bolman and Deal's rational system is essentially the same as McCarty and Reyes' bureaucratic model. Both have a political model similarly defined. Bolman and Deal's human resource model and McCarty and Reyes' collegium are both based on high participation of members of the organization, although based on different literature. (Bolman and Deal's model is based on the classic literature of Maslow, 1954, McGregor, 1960, and Argyris, 1964. McCarty and Reyes' collegium is built on a set of assumptions and traditions unique to academic organizations.) McCarty and Reyes' "organized anarchy" bears many similarities to Bolman and Deal's symbolic frame; both are based on March and Olsen's work on ambiguous organizations. Bolman and Deal extend this work by assuming that when a situation is ambiguous, individuals attach their own meaning to it as a way of reducing ambiguity. A symbolic system develops in which the symbolism can be more important than the actual event. In some ways, the symbolic system is consistent with the collegium because of the prevalence and importance of symbols in the traditional academic institution.

Although none of McCarty and Reyes' deans used the organized anarchy model, it should not be discarded. This chapter proposes that the work of March and Olsen is in fact the most useful to explain the idiosyncratic nature of higher education governance. In focusing on the term *anarchy,* McCarty and Reyes tend to emphasize the absence of dependable process, roles, and rules that keep academic institutions running, making the model seem ludicrous. Most academic institutions are bureaucracies, and bureaucracies work most of the time. Few deans are anarchists. But rational bureaucracies are built on assump-

tions of power that are not wholly valid. Many times academic institutions operate in other ways, and successful leaders must understand and expect these situations. Bolman and Deal's symbolic system, also based on the work of March and Olsen, is one way of understanding ambiguous situations.

One thing is clear: There are many different models of successful leadership, and there are many more models of leadership gone awry. McCarty and Reyes acknowledge that deans in the institutions they studied govern "in a host of ways" (1987, p. 6), giving validity to a variety of models. Each model has its strengths and shortcomings in explaining the job of being a dean, and the successful dean keeps all of them available. Most administrative literature is based on a rational model, but this literature has a hard time accounting for situations in which a dean makes all the "right" rational moves and still ends in disaster. Morsink (1987) discovered that two of the major differences between the jobs of deans and other administrators in education are a lack of top-down authority in a collegial model and a cumbersome, overregulated system. It is useful to keep two points in mind when considering the models' applicability to the dean's job: first, the faculty ultimately have control, and second, the job is complex and demanding—it can immediately fill 24 hours of the day. These two assumptions form the crux of the complexity of the deanship.

The Bureaucratic Model

The rational model is based on Weber's (1925/1947) concept of bureaucracy, in which power flows down in a hierarchy, roles are clearly defined, and rules and policies govern most occurrences. Decisions are made at the top and carried out by those below. The rational model assumes that the organization has the technology for accomplishing goals, that a plan can be developed to accomplish goals, and that the organization can determine whether or not a goal has been achieved.

Only under an assumption of bureaucracy can an organization as large as a modern university function. The bureaucratic model allows regular processes to be established and tasks to be assigned. It allows schedules, budgets, and decision-making structures to be established. It allows responsibilities to be divided and delegated to specialists. Yet few university employees would need someone else to enumerate the shortcomings of bureaucracy—chiefly, it is slow, and sometimes it just bogs down (Morsink, 1987). Another major shortcoming of this model in an academic institution is caused by the fact that the faculty have so

much power (Morsink, 1987). Most of a dean's work is done in this mode, and they need to be highly skilled in operating within a bureaucracy. It is also true that deans must be able to step outside the assumption of a bureaucracy at times and think of the organization in other ways.

In the past few decades, management science has evolved a more democratic form of bureaucracy in response to the work of human resource theorists who have called for wider participation in the running of organizations. In this type of organization, often called a rational democracy, a leader can facilitate the group determination of the goals and course of action. It is assumed that the organization can achieve its goals through its standard technology and that a group can determine by some objective means whether or not the goal has been achieved. This model forms the basis for what has been called "strategic leadership" or "strategic planning."

The rational model is a useful and successful way of thinking about the job of the dean. This model allows a dean to plan and make things happen, relieving the inertia of bureaucracy. An organization can set goals (through any process) and establish the steps to get there. Progress can be evaluated and modified. The model assumes that an organization can know what it needs to know and can know how to do what it needs to do. But as March and Olsen point out, members of organizations often perceive things differently and cannot agree on what ought to be done or how to do it. Many unforeseen events and conditions modify outcomes, and participants attach different values to these events and conditions. An organization often chooses one course of action only to decide later that another might be better or that no one really cares about achieving the goal.

A few years ago, slogan-like mission statements were popular, as were mission statements crafted in obscure syntax to include a contribution from every member and hence lacking real meaning. It was assumed that a group could have a specific meeting during which they could craft a statement that would express what they hoped to achieve. Rarely were these statements heartfelt beliefs; more often they were irrelevant to the day-to-day activities of the participants.

Human Resources Model

This model as presented by Bolman and Deal assumes that organizations exist to meet human needs—that it is a leader's job to see that an organization is arranged so that individuals "can achieve their own goals

best by directing their efforts toward organizational rewards" (1991, p. 127). This theory, originally presented as Theory Y by McGregor (1960), was also based on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of human needs.

Recent contributions to the human resources model come from feminist theories of leadership. These theories of leadership tend to stress "flat" organizational structures and eschew hierarchical notions of power. Astin and Leland (1991) articulate a feminist perspective on leadership that assumes that (a) reality is socially constructed—alternative views are accepted, (b) people are interdependent and therefore leadership needs to be a collective effort, and (c) power is energy, not the same as control, but an expandable resource that is produced and shared among leaders and followers. Similarly, Kolodny (1998) describes a model of nonhierarchical, inclusive team decision making that she developed: "The only way for a campus to converge around a common goal is for a strong, risk-taking administrator to distribute problem solving horizontally" (p. 195).

The Collegium

The collegium is a traditional academic model, which assumes that decisions will be made by all faculty and administration through consensus. This model honors the decision-making role of the faculty but is time-consuming for day-to-day operation and bogs down when consensus cannot be reached. Successful deans often describe their organizations as flat, meaning that there are few levels of bureaucratic control and that they are close to the faculty. Gmelch (1999) found that 59% of the responding deans in his study identified with both faculty and administration, recognizing their dual role.

One of the best and most touching descriptions of a successful dean is Blumberg's description (1988) of Burton Blatt, former dean of the School of Education at Syracuse University. Two years after Blatt's death, Blumberg notes that the faculty at Syracuse continued to talk about Blatt and feel his influence. After interviewing faculty to determine what they had seen as special in Blatt's leadership, Blumberg is clear that no set of administrative competencies was responsible for Blatt's reputation: "While the dean must be able to deal with routine administrative matters competently and with dispatch . . . [and] there are skills attached to constructing academic budgets and making wise personnel decisions, these kinds of things were not what made Burton Blatt memorable to his faculty" (p. 96). Instead, among Blatt's distinguishing characteristics was his sense of professorial vocation. While no one ever

seemed to have heard Blatt articulate this belief, faculty had a strong sense that he had seen himself first as a professor and believed that the professoriate is a special calling, bestowing special responsibilities. Blatt also seems to have seen his faculty as thinking of themselves in this way. Blumberg concludes a leader does not necessarily have to motivate or direct people with such a sense of their calling, a leader simply needs to nurture people's capacity to "act out their vocation." Blumberg quotes one faculty member as saying that Blatt "talked about 'what is a good professor.' I think he really felt that being a professor was the most important and privileged job in the world" (p. 95).

The Political Model

The political model assumes that there are competing interests for resources and that bargains will be struck to achieve goals, which will maximize the aims of subgroups. The dean may be seen as a mediator among various subgroups within the school or college. The dean may also be one competing with other segments of the university for resources or other segments of the educational community (Geiger, 1989).

This model recognizes that power and influence are not always distributed according to the hierarchical structure of the bureaucracy, and occasional shortcuts and deals move things ahead. It also acknowledges that there are never enough resources to meet all demands, and people develop systems of commanding scarce commodities (Geiger, 1989). Deans rarely need to have the advantages of this system spelled out—political power ensures that one gets what one needs. It is efficient; in fact, it is expedient. The obvious problem with the model is that it can be unfair and can violate rules of the organization and even rules of society. It must be used with responsibility, caution, and discretion.

In evaluating a dean's performance and finding successful models, it is important to recognize that deans of education have many constituencies, and in no model does this play a bigger role than in the political model. A successful education dean must work well with the faculty, university administration, K-12 schools, and community. Each of these constituencies views the dean from a different context and judges the success of the dean uniquely. A dean must balance responsibilities to each constituency and consider the demands of each.

One measure of a dean's success can be the perception of university administrators. A study conducted by Lasley and Haberman (1987) concluded that top-level administrators wanted first deans who could attract and retain high-quality faculty. They also wanted deans who

could establish general institutional norms and deans who had good relationship skills. Top administrators did not place high value on a dean's involvement with schools or the community. Another study by Matcyznski, Lasley, and Haberman (1989) complements the previous study by examining how deans are perceived by their faculty. Faculty cited communication skills first in the list of attributes of a successful dean. However, not all communication skills were equally valued; consensus building, listening, and conflict resolution were minor compared with the ability to be "an articulate and forceful spokesperson for the needs of the unit." Matczynski, Lasley, and Haberman conclude that faculty want a dean who can "secure needed resources but not intrude substantially on programs or faculty prerogatives" (p. 13).

These two studies present an interesting contrast. Each group, top administrators and faculty, essentially judge deans on how well they handle the other group. Administrators want a dean who can build and manage a good faculty. Faculty want a dean who can gain resources from the administration. This is one of the clearest examples of conflict inherent in the dean's role.

March and Olsen Model: Ambiguous Organizations

The model of "ambiguous organizations" is the one called *organized anarchy* in the McCarty and Reyes schema. The model was used by March with various other theorists (Cohen & March, 1974; March & Olsen, 1976; March, 1988) to describe an institution in which outcomes are uncertain because goals are ambiguous and technologies undefined. Roles may change from situation to situation because of the amount of importance participants attribute to various aspects of organizational work.

March and his colleagues wrote about decision making in ambiguous organizations such as school districts and universities. They found that decisions were often not made along the lines specified by the traditional economic model in which decisions are intentional, consequential, and optimizing (March, 1988, p. 1). Instead, decisions in ambiguous organizations are made by many participants who pay attention to the decision in varying degrees; preferences are not clear. These organizations' entire work is often characterized as "organized anarchy" or "the garbage can model." Such terms may be accurate for a part of their work, but they form an unjustified generalization that causes the organizations to be dismissed. In fact, organized anarchy is not the same as anarchy, referring rather to power and processes as being less predict-

able than in traditional organizational models. This model adds a useful frame for understanding organizations because most administrators in higher education have experienced unpredictable and surprising outcomes from apparently rational processes.

This model assumes that people cannot know much of what they think they should know, and often they cannot know how to accomplish various tasks. Although most models allow for unanticipated consequences and changes, such elements are much more prominent in this model. March suggests that goals should be "discovered" or should be treated as hypotheses—that often, participants in organizations try working in one direction to see if they like where they are going. In this model, organizations will not be entirely consistent; March suggests treating hypocrisy as a transition from one set of beliefs to another. The model also suggests setting up opportunities in which rules are suspended so new goals and new techniques can be discovered.

Symbolic Model

Bolman and Deal have extended and applied the work of March and Olsen into what they have labeled the symbolic frame. They state that one way people have always dealt with ambiguity is to attach symbolic meaning. Looking at an organization as an anthropologist might, Bolman and Deal examine myth, ritual, and ceremony as ways an ambiguous organization establishes meaning for itself.

It is easy to find symbols, myths, and rituals with powerful meaning in academe, and a newcomer is often confused by local meaning attached to apparently neutral events, places, or objects. Cultural meaning can have a "taken for granted" quality that makes it hard for longstanding members of a group to recognize or verbalize. It is often experienced on an emotional rather than a rational level.

Applications of symbolic leadership for new leaders or for organizational change can often seem contrived, because a leader cannot quickly attach new meanings or design a new ritual. Symbols take time to develop and a newcomer must often move slowly in symbolic leadership. New deans are sometimes successful in dealing with a difficult, entrenched faculty member by changing an important symbol. Sometimes when a dean is powerless to deal with the problem explicitly, he or she can remove a title by reorganizing a division, or move the faculty member from an office location through minor office remodeling. In most institutions, these moves are powerful because of the institutional value attached to such symbols as office location and titles.

How Do Deans Lead Successfully?

So how does one lead a fairly autonomous group within a complex organization? This chapter presents several models of leadership; each makes different assumptions about the structure of the organization and the role of the dean. Each model has strengths and weaknesses, and successful deans must be flexible in the ways they perceive their organizations.

The magnitude of the job requires deans to be skillful in working in bureaucracies. Even the faculty tributes to Blatt noted that he always got the routine administrative tasks done quickly and well (Blumberg, 1988). The strong reform and accountability movements in education today require that deans be able to set new goals, design courses of action, and evaluate progress in the rational model.

Deans usually realize that despite buildings and budgets, their greatest resource is their faculty, and designing an organization becomes a priority. The power structure of higher education requires that deans be able to work as part of the collegium (Morsink, 1987; Blumberg, 1988). Deans who confront their lack of control learn to appreciate their "flat" organizations. It would seem that successful deans remember that they are part of the faculty. They listen to their colleagues and learn to give information and decision-making authority to faculty in meaningful ways.

The many constituencies of the dean require skill in building consensus, not just mediating differences (Geiger, 1989). With both internal and external constituents, the dean is able to find points of leverage to move the organization along. Deans learn to be politicians—leaders who can secure resources in a competitive market.

Finally, the inconsistencies of the job and its context require that the dean figure out a way to live with ambiguity. The successful dean is able to know when to apply rules and when to suspend them; to sense when an organization is discovering new goals and directions for growth and to know how to support them. A dean must learn to accept unanticipated consequences and not be surprised by them. The successful dean realizes that not all faculty want to participate to the same extent in every decision and makes accommodation for this variance. In short, the successful dean not only learns to live with ambiguity, but also learns that ambiguity makes possible what might otherwise be an impossible task.

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CHAPTER 6
Executive Behavior Patterns of Academic Deans

by Jerlando F. L. Jackson, University of Wisconsin-Madison

Some say deans must be "born with the physical charm of a Greek athlete, the cunning of Machiavelli, the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of a lion, if possible; but, in any case, be born with the stomach of a goat" (Wells, 1980, p. 47). Others say, "Administrators are 51 percent born and 49 percent made" (Morris, 1981, p. 10). While inborn traits may account for some of a dean's success, most academic managerial and leadership skills must be cultivated, shaped, and tested before an individual is ready to serve as dean (Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Because little is known about the executive behavior of academic deans, it is difficult to prepare potential occupants and incumbents adequately for their role.

This chapter considers the patterns of executive behavior exhibited by academic deans. *Executive behavior* describes the ways in which executives behave or act—their conduct and decorum. *Patterns* refers to the distinguishing characteristics of the behavior. The chapter draws on a recent study juxtaposing academic deans' behavior (Jackson, 2000) against two similar studies based in the business sector (Helgesen, 1990; Mintzberg, 1973). Three questions are addressed:

1. What behavioral patterns are similar among the three sets of executives?
2. What behavioral patterns are different among the three sets of executives?
3. What may be the reasons for the differences?

Study Design

This study applies concepts of role theory and tabular review to perform analysis between patterns of behavior exhibited by deans and their business executive counterparts. Role theory involves the study of behaviors of persons within contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviors (Biddle, 1979). Tabular review provides a holistic method for analyzing and summarizing results from multiple studies (Dooley, 2001).

Executive studies by Mintzberg (1973) and Helgesen (1990) form the foundation for comparison of academic deans with other executives. In his classic study, Henry Mintzberg conducted a structured observational study of five male executives (four chief executive officers and one school superintendent). He employed structured and "anecdotal" (unstructured) data. The structured data consisted of chronology, mail, and contact records. The chronology record was designed to provide basic data on the design of the workday, and to provide a reference to the other two records. The mail record detailed the nature of the mail received and generated by the executives. The contact record provides detail on meetings, telephone calls, and tours. The anecdotal data were field notes data which helped to facilitate coding, the development of theory, and provided examples to support the choices of categories.

As a result of his analysis, Mintzberg identified eight common patterns of behavior that these five male executives exhibited: (a) they worked at an unrelenting pace, with no breaks in activity during the day; (b) their days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation; (c) they spared little time for activities not directly related to their work; (d) they exhibited a preference for live action encounters; (e) they maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organizations; (f) they lacked time for reflection because they were immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the organization going; (g) they identified themselves with their jobs; and (h) they had difficulty sharing information.

Almost two decades later, Sally Helgesen (1990) replicated Mintzberg's study by studying four female chief executive officers in business. Several differences in these studies must be noted. Helgesen did not attempt to delineate executive roles, as did Mintzberg. While Mintzberg presented his findings in the forms of records (chronology, mail, and contacts), Helgesen opted to present each executive as a narrative, written in a novel-like format. However, Helgesen did generate patterns of executive behavior in response to Mintzberg's set.

A third study using similar methodology was conducted on academic deans to generate an understanding of the daily administrative processes (activities) of the college of education deans and a theory based on the delineated roles of the dean as they relate to the executive behavior of the position during the workday (Jackson, 2000). Two male and two female deans were the focus of this study. Mintzberg's methodological approach was employed to collect data with some modifi-

Table 6.1. A Comparison of the Patterns Found in Three Studies on Executives

	Mintzberg (1973) 5 male CEOs	**Helgesen (1990)** 4 female CEOs	**Jackson (2000)** 4 education deans: 2 male and 2 female
Pace	The executives worked at an unrelenting pace, with no breaks in activity during the day.	The executives worked at a steady pace, but with small breaks scheduled in throughout the day.	The deans worked at a brisk pace, but took small unscheduled breaks throughout the day.
Fragmentation	Their days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation.	They did not view unscheduled tasks and encounters as interruptions.	The deans viewed the unscheduled tasks and encounters as part of their job.
Personal Tasks	They spared little time for activities not directly related to their work.	They made time for activities not directly related to their work.	The deans made modest efforts to incorporate non-business related activities in their workday.
Preference of Interactions	They exhibited a preference for live action encounters.	They preferred live action encounters, but scheduled time to attend to mail.	The deans preferred live action encounters, scheduled time to attend to mail, and increasingly used electronic mail.
Networking	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.	They maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organization.
Reflection	Immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the company going, they lacked time for reflection.	They focused on the ecology of leadership.	Immersed in the daily activities of the deanship, they lacked time for reflection.
Professional Identity	They identified themselves with their job.	They saw their own identities as complex and multifaceted.	The deans saw their job as an integrated part of their lives.
Information Sharing	They had difficulty sharing information.	They scheduled time for sharing information.	The deans' schedules included time to share information in a variety of forums and formats.

cations. The only record employed in this study was the chronology record. The researcher believed that collecting data with the two other records would impede the workday of the academic deans and ultimately the study.

Field notes were analyzed for activities performed by deans and organized into a matrix to identify which characteristics confirmed or conflicted with Mintzberg's initial set and additionally with the set of patterns found by Helgesen (see Table 6.1). Eight patterns of behavior are compared across three studies from the sectors of business and education.

Patterns of Executive Behavior for the Deanship

Mintzberg (1973), Helgesen (1990), and Jackson (2000) each set out to answer the question of what executives do, using different populations. Their comparison may provide insight into the academic deanship by illustrating similar and dissimilar behavioral patterns among each of the groups.

Pace

Male chief executive officers worked at an unrelenting pace with no breaks in activity during the day. This practice left the executives with the feeling that their work was never done. While female executives also worked at a steady pace, some breaks were scheduled throughout the day that helped slow down the pace. Academic deans fell somewhere in between the business groups: They worked at a brisk pace but took small breaks throughout the day. These breaks were not scheduled and generally were used to eat or drink; however, they still helped to slow down the pace of the day. For instance, after finishing a budgetary meeting, one dean asked an associate to accompany him to the student union to purchase a cup of coffee.

Fragmentation

Male business executives' days were characterized by interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation. Much of their time was used to address unforeseeable events that created a chaotic atmosphere. Any free time in their schedule was subsumed by subordinates' needs. Conversely, female executives did not view unscheduled tasks and encounters as interruptions, but made themselves accessible for the immediate needs of subordinates. The deans viewed the unscheduled tasks and encounters as part of their job—therefore, more in line with Helgesen's female

executives' philosophy. This may be due more to the advancement of executive behavior by 1990 than to gender, since both male and female deans exhibited similar patterns (Jackson, 2000). The academic deans maintained an open-door policy, citing the need to address questions and concerns as soon as they arose.

Personal Tasks

The male executives in Mintzberg's study spared little time for activities not directly related to their work. Time with their families suffered severely, and their homes were little more than extensions of the workplace. On the other hand, Helgesen's female executives made time for activities not directly related to their work. These executives were very conscious of their family time and did everything they could do to prevent it from suffering. The deans made modest efforts to incorporate non-business-related activities in their day, so they were not as isolated as Mintzberg's executives, but not as integrated as Helgesen's executives. The deans engaged in non-business-related phone contacts and would sometimes schedule personal appointments during the workday such as doctor's or dentist's appointments.

Preference of Interactions

Mintzberg's male executives exhibited a preference for "live-action" encounters, communicating via telephone and face-to-face meetings. Similarly, Helgesen's executives preferred live-action encounters and also scheduled time to attend to mail. Additionally, Helgesen's set of executives saw mail as just another task and not a burden like Mintzberg's executives. The deans also preferred live-action encounters, scheduled time to attend to mail, and increasingly used electronic mail as a method of communication, including to issue important decisions that had previously been reserved for face-to-face meetings, such as resource allocations and program development.

Networking

All three studies revealed that the executives maintained a complex network of relationships with people outside their organizations. Each set of executives spent a great deal of time building coalitions and collaborations with outside constituents. Cultivating and forming relationships is a critical part of any job. Because of their position in the center of the organization and administration of the university, academic deans felt the need to maintain many relationships—perhaps

more than their business counterparts. Relationships with the president, chief academic officer, department chairs, faculty, students, other deans, nonacademic personnel staff, and the external public are essential for the performance of their responsibilities.

Reflection

Mintzberg found male executives immersed in the day-to-day need to keep the company going, lacking time for reflection. His executives did not afford themselves the opportunity to reflect on their leadership. However, Helgesen reports that the female executives focused on the ecology of leadership: "It encompasses a vision of society—they relate decisions to their larger effect upon the role of the family, the American educational system, the environment, even world peace" (1990, p. 25). The deans were also immersed in the daily activities of the deanship and lacked time for reflection. Their only reflection time came in the extended work hours at home in the evenings and on weekends. Deans tended to take home lengthy reading and paperwork (e.g., publications, reports, letters, and memos) since extended blocks of time were not available for these activities during the workday. Deans also deferred activities that required deep and conceptual thinking, such as preparation of a conference presentation or authoring a journal article, to the afternoon.

Professional Identity

Male executives identified themselves completely with their jobs; their identity was indistinguishable from their positions. However, Helgesen's female executives saw their identities as multifaceted. They viewed their jobs as just one element of themselves, because other aspects of their lives took up a substantial amount of time not to be consumed by their careers. The deans were somewhere in the middle. They saw their jobs as an integrated but dominant part of their lives. Since the job was so time-consuming, it transferred over into their personal lives (such as through extended hours). Also, their personal lives transferred over into their professional lives (such as through personal appointments). For the most part, their spouses were involved in some capacity with the university as well (perhaps as faculty or professional staff).

Information Sharing

Mintzberg's male executives had difficulty sharing information; in fact, they had a tendency to hoard it. They became consumers rather than

disseminators of information. In contrast, Helgesen's female executives scheduled time for sharing as much information as possible. The deans' schedules also included time to share information, in a variety of forums and formats (e.g., newsletters and e-mails) similar to the executives in Helgesen's study. The term "information broker" was used to depict the academic dean's unique access to internal and external information. Internally, deans tend to be generalists with individuals who are specialists reporting to them. Externally through liaisons, deans have access to outsiders who themselves are information brokers for their organization. Therefore, deans become the focal point for external information requests as well.

Reasons for Differences

Through the comparisons of these three sets of patterns of behavior, similarities and differences arose. Two possible reasons for the differences include the studies' primary focus and the year when each was conducted.

Mintzberg's and Jackson's studies focused on the position more than on the person; emphasis was placed on the nature of the position and not the leadership styles of the incumbents. However, Helgesen's study seemed to place more emphasis on how the position was played. Moreover, her study was guided by a critical theory approach with the intent to find differences in male and female executives. In her own words, "In order to know what women managers do differently, I first had to know what male managers do" (Helgesen, 1990, p. 8).

The time span between the three studies also contributes to the differences in their findings. Mintzberg's study was performed in 1967 and published in 1973, Helgesen's subsequently in 1990, and Jackson's in 2000. Advancements made in executive behavioral theory by 1990, for example, may have enabled the female executives to appear more sophisticated than the male executives.

Ultimately, after accounting for the limitations caused by the factors cited above, there do not appear to be major differences in the behavior of executives in the business or academic sector. Moreover, female and male executive behavior as defined by the academic dean's position is very similar. This finding does not suggest that incumbents do not approach the position with different leadership styles. Rather it posits only that leadership styles affect how the position is approached, but does not affect the nature of the position. The same job require-

ments seem to exist for deans, whether they are male or female, new or seasoned.

Conclusion

The findings from this review of the three studies demonstrate that the patterns of executive behavior of academic deans generally match those of business executives. However, these similar behaviors occur in two sectors that are quite different. The business sector is profit driven, while the goal of education is to provide educated citizens from which society will benefit. Nonetheless, academic deans act very similar to their corporate counterparts. There are a number of implications for deans that seem noteworthy:

Pace. Deans could schedule breaks during the workday to provide a consistent control for the pace of the workday.

Fragmentation. To alleviate the interruption, discontinuity, and fragmentation of the workday, deans could lower the number of unscheduled tasks and meetings permitted to subsume their work schedule.

Personal tasks. Deans could borrow from the philosophy of executives observed by Helgesen by making conscious attempts to infuse family and non-business-related activities in their work lives.

Preference of interactions. While utilizing technology helps facilitate interactions, deans should be cognizant of the power of personal interactions.

Networking. Developing innovative and creative ways to cultivate and maintain relationships is critical for both potential occupants and incumbent academic deans.

Reflection. Deans could better incorporate time throughout the workday for reflection. It may take the form of 5-10 minutes during the noon hour and at the end of the workday to reflect on what worked, what did not work, and what they might do differently.

Professional identity. Academic deans should not edify their professional identities with who they are, so as to not allow the problems of the job to become personal problems as well.

Information sharing. Deans are encouraged to find effective ways to disseminate information to those who need it most in the college or school. A clear flow of information is key to success.

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CHAPTER 7
The Deans of the Future

by Dale G. Andersen, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

This is indeed an exciting time in education. Deans in particular are confronting change, challenge, and chaos as never before. One image that sometimes flashes through my mind is of a dean of education playing something like a Pac-Man video game. There is even a similarity between the skills that are needed for success in both "games." Both require a discerning vision, quick and accurate reactions, good judgment, and a full and unerring grasp of the rules that are in play at all times. For the kid in the arcade, these skills are about all that is needed for success, but for the dean, they are necessary but not sufficient to turn dreams into realities.

As I look back over my own career now that it is nearing its conclusion, I can fully appreciate the multitude of changes that have occurred that have directly affected the expectations, stresses, and perceptions of the education dean. I first stepped into the position of a chief academic officer of a department of education in summer 1973 and through two subsequent deanships "walked in the moccasins" of the head of a college of education for a quarter of a century. I returned to a professorial role just a few years ago. In my judgment, the dean's role has never been as challenging, as fraught with peril, or as under siege as it is today. It is likely to become even more so in the future. However, future deans of education should definitely not be discouraged by this fate. On the contrary, they have a rare and unique opportunity. In the words of Lee Iacocca, "We are continuously faced by great opportunities brilliantly disguised as insoluble problems."

There is an old assumption in the domain of educational measurement and evaluation that the best predictor of the future is the past and the present. To offer advice to the deans of the future, I have not only my own past experience to borrow from but also the stimulating thoughts and analyses offered by the other authors of pieces in this monograph. I also have the luxury today of being able to write without being held to my words by my faculty, my administrative supervisors, or other constituencies, because I am no longer a dean. Incidentally, my own experience also allows me to quickly answer the question, posed earlier in this monograph, of whether there is life after the deanship—

the answer for me, at least, is Yes, and how delicious, how sweet it is! With your indulgence, let me settle a bit into my rocking chair and filter some of the facts and observations that my colleagues have presented through the lens of one long-time dean's experiences and share some thoughts about the deans of the future.

The search for balance and success is trickier now than at any time that I can remember. Deans of the Future face a daunting task. But overcoming adversity and meeting challenges have always been fulfilling adventures, which means there is also greater potential for payoffs, success, and satisfaction than ever before. A mantra might be taken from the words of Alfred Lord Tennyson, "To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield." What could be more exhilarating?

The Challenging Context

Why do I believe the future holds exciting but scary challenges for deans of education? Although my Myers-Briggs profile indicates that I am basically an intuitional person, there are analytical bases for my belief as well as intuitive ones. It seems worthwhile to consider four important "macro" changes that have occurred to create a contemporary environment in education that now visits turmoil on the lives of education deans.

Education in the Spotlight

The first macro change is the tenacious spotlight that the media and the public have increasingly put on education in recent years. On the national scene, much of the attention directed at education has become hostile, critical, often irrational, and highly politicized. It began with attacks on the PK-12 educational system and has spread to teacher education. The national-level impetus seems to have been the now-legendary 1983 report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk*. Since then, education has been pushed and pulled politically, beaten up philosophically, and scrutinized regularly by the national media. Reputations have been made and careers fashioned on issues in education.

In his insightful environmental scans, AACTE President/CEO David Imig has often characterized the current competing advocates of change as "professionalism versus reinvention" or "systemic reform versus dramatic reinvention" (1997, 1998). He and others have characterized the clash of positions on American education not only accurately but also quite graphically. No matter what the position or the spin, education

has been getting sliced and diced in many different ways. The elegant professional standards and performance-based design of the NCTAF-NCATE-INTASC-NEA-NBPTS complex[1] has regular showdowns at the "O.K. Corral" with the consumer-driven, decentralized arguments of the Checker Finn-Diane Ravitch-Bill Bennett-Ballou and Podgursky cartel. Deans of education must dodge their way through the issues and sound bites to fashion a viable strategy haven for themselves. Most important, their strategy must allow them to present a credible, coherent message that expresses what they hold to be best and right for the children, candidates, and colleagues in their immediate sphere of responsibility. Yet it must not unduly offend those who hold the local pursestrings or control the local policy channels. This task is typically not easy. Most publics consider themselves experts on controversial issues in education, and they can be vocal about their beliefs. Furthermore, the "trickle down" theory has taken root when it comes to criticizing education—more often than not, the local media seem at least as hostile as the national media. Whether the media have driven public sentiment or vice versa is a moot point. These contexts are real, and deans of the future must be aware of and attentive to both parties.

Education has become a political football that easily lends itself to varying positions and demands of vested interest groups, differing philosophies of government, and disparate visions of the future. It is not by chance that education is action issue #1 both at the national level and in most of our states. In a column in *AACTE Briefs*, Past-President Allen Glenn focused on the tensions among national, state, and local strategies relative to educational reform (1999). Glenn evoked Ken Strike's term *centralized localism* and pointed out how very difficult it is at times for deans of education and their faculties to arbitrate and "tiptoe" politically among these competing forces. Deans of education cannot escape being drawn into these contentious battles. While opinions about education have always come from many sides and from many self-anointed experts, it is more difficult these days to achieve objectives and make progress against the competing tides of opinion because the volume of disagreement has gone up by several decibels. In the spotlight of the press and other media, there seems to be no place for deans to hide. Again, this visibility is no reason to be discouraged or disillusioned. Perseverance will prevail in the long run. The poet Henry David Thoreau once said, "If one advances confidently in the direction of his dreams and endeavors to live the life which he has imagined, he will meet with a success unexpected in common hours."

Expectations of American Universities

A second macro force that has shaped the contemporary scene in education, in my opinion, is that the mission, objectives, and achievements of the American university, as an institution, have significantly changed in recent years. In many ways, the success of the American university has transformed it into its own worst nightmare: By becoming the envy of the world, American higher education has created very high, perhaps even unrealistic, expectations for itself. Through what have often been extraordinary products of the hard work and ingenuity of faculty and administrators, institutions have accomplished truly impressive breakthroughs in a variety of fields and at a variety of levels.

For local audiences, colleges or universities are typically centers of not only information and knowledge but also cultural and economic activity and accomplishment. Within states, faculty members commonly provide expert consultation and advice on a broad array of topics and enterprises, applying their knowledge to help solve the most challenging of problems. The variety and complexity of local challenges have multiplied as communities and, indeed, society as a whole have become more complex. At the national and international levels, recognition in the humanities, fine arts, social sciences, and other disciplines in the form of prestigious awards, such as the Nobel prizes in chemistry, physics, and economics, have largely become the domain of American university faculty members. The result is that academics are counted on to help solve a wide range of problems that command high visibility—new health treatments and disease control measures, miracle drugs, medical procedures, new agricultural products, improvements in economic forecasting, the generation of an effective workforce of brilliant and humane leaders in all fields, and a plethora of other contributions to society have all flowed from the American university. There is good justification for the image that the rest of the world holds toward American higher education. And American consultants are at work worldwide assisting in the redesign and conversion of systems of education and even teacher education programs to the American model. It is somewhat ironic that while the media and public are busy criticizing our schools and our teacher education programs, the rest of the world appears bent on emulating us.

At the institutional level, due to this crush of expectations, the life of the professor has generally become more competitive, more demanding, more open to inspection and criticism, and more contentious. In this environment, the education dean, as the visible spokesperson for

teacher preparation, is more often called on to contribute to solutions to a plethora of societal as well as schooling problems. Among these are the quality of teachers, research solutions to vexing classroom problems, control of teenage pregnancy, curtailment of substance abuse, and dropout prevention. Great demands are placed on the dean of education for a breadth and depth of knowledge on a variety of topics and for discernible actions that are not necessarily within the knowledge base of education or educators. These expectations will surely continue to affect the deans of the future. If increasing expectations are followed by additional resources, this could be a good development. On the other hand, a lack of support is likely to create consuming anxieties.

The bar has been raised on teacher education. There is the legitimate belief that student achievement in the PK-12 schools can be traced to the quality of classroom teaching that takes place and that classroom teaching, in turn, is a function of the quality of teacher education programs. We can and should live with that assumption. However, the standards game has introduced the perception that this connection is linear, powerful, and easily measured. The belief has emerged that the equation can be manipulated and a better result ensured by simply applying more pressure to education schools and to their deans. Politicians, invariably in search of the "quick fix," have grabbed this opportunity to translate the surface aspects of this equation into rules, regulations, and even laws. The deans of the future will be at the center of this episode of *Mission: Impossible* but can surely prevail by accepting that meaningful progress may take some time. Abraham Lincoln said, "The best thing about the future is that it comes one day at a time."

Financial Constraints

A third macro force is in the world of economics and budgeting. The increasing appetite of public institutions of higher education for fiscal support from both the public and private arenas now faces a bevy of competing needs from health care, law enforcement, infrastructure renewal, and other areas. The parallel need for increased fiscal support among private institutions of higher education has them looking toward new and innovative delivery systems and imaginative campaigns for funds. This situation has led institutions to search for groundbreaking solutions to shortfalls and squeezes. Slogans such as "do more with less," "be innovative," and "eliminate duplication" have become common parlance. Deans are right in the middle of this turmoil. The most obvious and pervasive change in this arena affecting the dean of

education is the additional role expectation of being an active and persistent fund-raiser. Through my work with the AACTE Leadership Recruitment Services, assisting institutions in their dean searches, I now hear that the expectation is for a new dean of education to spend upwards of 25% of his or her time in fund-raising. One former dean of education, who now serves as president of a university, said she initially found it difficult emotionally and psychologically to ask for money, but she later hit upon a device that she now finds rather enjoyable: When the time comes in a conversation to actually ask for a donation, she begins by saying, "I would like you to consider donating $100,000 . . . ." If at this point the prospective donor doesn't blink, she then completes the sentence with ". . . each year for the next 5 years!"

In this time of financial stress, some institutions are merging schools of education organizationally and administratively with other units to save costs. Oftentimes this merger is with units in health, human services, human development, or the behavioral sciences. In such cases, the deans of the future will be expected to know and represent these disparate disciplines administratively and academically. The dean, now with broader responsibilities, must focus on maintaining the image of the institution, furthering its mission, and implementing its vision—a vision that has, in most cases, been imposed from either the controlling board of trustees, the alumni, or the central administration, or by a combination of these elements. The dean must seek or at least accept service assignments on a wide variety of committees, task forces, commissions, boards, and other groups that pick, prod, and analyze the fiscal and academic behavior of the new, larger unit. It is likely that such involvements will increase for deans of the future because the number of such panels is on the increase at all levels. Memberships of this type offer opportunities as well as risks, so the glass can be viewed as half full as well as half empty. Heed the words of the successful athlete Terry Bradshaw, who once said, "When you've got something to prove, there's nothing greater than a challenge."

The Impact of Technology

The fourth and final macro force I will mention is the metamorphosis of the world of academics and administration that has been wrought by the impact of computers and technology. The impact of technology in education appears to be ever increasing. Its potential for the improvement of instruction, scholarship, and service is so great that it is hard to fathom any limits at the present time. Surely this revolution is

just in its infancy. The future impact of technology on the packaging and delivery of instruction and the teaching/learning enterprise can only be imagined. The dramatic influence it is having in the domain of scholarship is pervasive as well. Both qualitative and quantitative data are being more efficiently and effectively collected, recorded, massaged, processed, and analyzed; manuscripts are being created, polished, and finalized; new journals are being created; and as a result, the proliferation of information goes on at an accelerated pace. Obviously service activities, being the offspring of instruction and scholarship, are likewise affected.

Computer and technological applications and uses promise to free deans of the future from many of their record-keeping and paper-shuffling duties. There are, however, some potential downsides as well. Cost is an obvious one. But there are invidious personal and psychological consequences as well. E-mail and voicemail can seduce us. Electronic messages, conversations, and exchanges often grab higher priority than they deserve. The "Net" beckons for attention first thing each working day and risks diverting us from attending to other, many times more important, tasks. This buzzing, blooming Internet revolution is one with which deans of the future will surely have to grapple on a daily basis. Dare to dream and be open to new ideas, but also be dedicated to hard work in this area. Again quoting Abraham Lincoln, "Things may come to those who wait, but only the things left by those who hustle."

Internal Challenges

There are surely many other aspects of these four macro changes that are likely to complicate the lives of deans of the future. But in the interest of time, let me now turn to some reflections on internal considerations for deans of the future—internal to schools of education and internal to the dean as a person. As Gmelch and Hopkins pointed out earlier in this book, effectiveness in interpersonal relations within the institution has always been important. Now with changing emphases in leadership styles and expectations, the odds of it being a premier skill have just been increased significantly.

Making the Most of Diverse Personalities

I have always felt that role models are important because they provide concrete examples of behavior and success. In the business of relating to and inspiring people, one role model, borrowed from the world of sports, might be Phil Jackson, the ultra-successful coach of two differ-

ent professional basketball teams in recent years, the Chicago Bulls and the Los Angeles Lakers. This so-called "Zen Master" attained success in both Chicago and Los Angeles by analyzing and responding to variant personalities of the players he coached. Deans of the future may also be faced with blending a team of players with disparate needs—the Dennis Rodmans, Michael Jordans, Kobe Bryants, and Shaquille O'Neals of the academic world. Just as Jackson spent the bulk of his time in psychological assessment, diagnosis, translation, motivation, placation, exhortation, and stimulation of his players, so must the dean engage in these activities with his or her faculty. Individual differences must be recognized, addressed, and turned to advantage. Jackson also had to take into consideration and be responsive to the wishes, goals, and expectations of the owners of these financially lucrative and highly visible professional basketball teams. So, too, must the dean be cognizant of the mindset of the central administration, policy makers such as the regents or trustees, legislators (in the case of public institutions), and other significant groups with vested interests. Egos above as well as egos below must be massaged and turned to productive, effective, and supportive participants.

Deans also have a lot in common with the "sandwich generation," only instead of being positioned between generations, they are sandwiched between faculty and upper administration. The rewards for maintaining good channels of communication, practicing effective interpersonal skills, and accurately sizing up people and acting decisively on those assessments will flow to the deans of the future.

I must also insert an observation that reinforces what Carol Merz pointed out earlier in this publication. Each dean's position is truly unique because of the local campus culture, the organizational structure, compatibility of leaders' and followers' styles, and attending circumstances. The makeup and qualities of faculty, the mission of the institution, the part that the school of education must play, the nature and level of the various support mechanisms, the expectations that a wide range of publics have for the role of the dean, and other immediate considerations are never quite the same from place to place. Tip O'Neill, the longtime Speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives, often said that all politics is local. In a very real sense, all education is local as well, and the role and functions of the dean of education are defined to a large extent by local variables. To search for universal or even common strengths and qualities that a dean must have to be successful may be helpful, but it is doomed to be less than sufficient. Leadership quali-

ties are situational in my judgment, and so the deans of the future must be discerning and shrewd in selecting a deanship in which they can succeed, selecting the right job in the right place at the right time for the right reasons.

In pursuing the tasks that Gmelch found were cited as being most important by deans themselves, today's leaders are privy to a good deal more research and scholarship on effective management and leadership practices than they were years ago. However, promoting participatory governance, enhancing empowerment, practicing responsive decision making, engendering trust, being action oriented, treating subordinates and superiors with respect and dignity, and establishing appropriate priorities relative to both fiscal and human resources is not always easy to master. It is important that personal preferences be considered when searching for a deanship. When it is essential to do routine tasks well and quickly, be willing to be a "leader" and thus sometimes go against the polls when it is the right thing to do, and even be willing to play Joan of Arc if need be, it is important to be in a situation where one's personal needs are being met. It is miserable to be under stress professionally and also not happy psychologically or personally. Merz stated that even good and rational leaders do sometimes fail professionally. The deans of the future will have their plates full, and it will be up to each of them to determine whether the meal is marked by contentment or by indigestion. While there are more beacons for today's dean, there are also more dilemmas. In the midst of them, maintain optimism and be guided by Don Shula's comment, "Success is not forever, and failure isn't fatal."

Personal Unity and Balance

My professional preparation originally was as a counselor and educational psychologist, so I am particularly aware of the need to tame the anxieties that deans inevitably encounter. Deans of the future will undoubtedly find themselves functioning within an increasing milieu of anxiety-inducing ambiguities. It will therefore be important in the interest of their own peace of mind and efficient use of energy to pay attention to both unity and balance in their personal lives. I believe it is vitally important for each aspiring dean to heed the inscription on the ancient Oracle of Delphi—"Know Thyself"—and internalize it. Be aware of the personal values, attitudes, and motivating forces within yourself, and at the very least be clear and honest with yourself as to what the real reasons are for your actions and behaviors. Congruency between

values and behavior usually leads to inner satisfaction and contentment. This is *unity:* Know why you act and be accepting of your own actions. *Balance,* on the other hand, requires attention to diversification of time, effort, and energy among personal and professional support systems and sources of satisfaction. Deans should not invest all their dreams, desires, or psychological payoffs in one goal. Each should learn to glean satisfaction from a variety of involvement with pastimes, family, and other enterprises as well as their work. Pay attention to the elements of stress reduction that Gmelch spoke of and researched. By all means, deans of the future will need to develop and employ stress reduction measures that work for them. This practice should be given high priority; without attention to this type of internal personal awareness and consideration, deans of the future will either lose the war or lose themselves.

Deaning for me has been exciting, challenging, demoralizing, uplifting, devastating, thrilling, depressing, satisfying, exhausting, and rewarding. May the deans of the future find it equally absorbing and compelling!

Note

1. The professionalization-oriented organizations named by acronym are spelled out as follows:
   INTASC—Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium
   NBPTS—National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
   NCTAF—National Commission on Teaching & America's Future
   NCATE—National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
   NEA—National Education Association

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